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History: Science or Art?

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In university departmentalizing and in professional writing, history is classified as one of the so-called "social sciences." Yet if one pushes the inquiry: "What is history?" even a little way, he is generally met by the statement that history is an inquiry into, or a record of, any or all particulars of the past—the past including the present moment which is becoming a part of the past. Now one or the other of these statements would appear to be in error, or possibly both are in error.

What is the ground for terming history a social science? It would appear to be twofold. First, "history," as the word has been commonly used for centuries, refers primarily to the human past and in a loose way to the record of the actions of groups of men. Hence its field of central interest is human and social. In the second place modern historians, admiring the vast achievement of mathematics and the "physical sciences," desire to emulate these in order to escape from emotional, subjective, and ordinary approaches to the study of man, and to become purely objective recorders of fact; to this extent they seek to render history scientific.

Here, however, they run into a profound difficulty; for science deals with the systematic relations of universals; history deals with particulars. The universals of science are temporal and aspatial; the particulars of history have always space-time specifications. We have come upon the second aspect of history which seems to contradict the first. If then, the genius

or essence of history is to inquire into and record particulars, its very nature precludes its becoming a science.

It is immediately confronted also with a profound problem. The perfect record of any particular would give us the event in its totality. But events are infinite in their implications; to record even a single event perfectly would be to reproduce the universe, and not alone the aspects of the universe as viewed by an individual man, but the universe as in the infinite comprehension of God. If, then, to science is assigned the realm of systematic universals and to history the realm of the particulars, history appears paradoxically to be estopped before it begins, as not even a single particular can be perfectly recorded, and as no principle of selection or abstraction is inherent in history itself.

Might it not be more fruitful if we thought of history as embracing two aspects: one in which its subject matter is unlimited and contributory to intellectual formulation; the other in which its subject matter is specifically human and contributory to the enrichment of experiential living? Perhaps it would have been better had two distinct terms for these two aspects of "history" developed long ago. Since both aspects are actually embraced in our commonly accepted use of the term, it may contribute to clarity of thought if we retain their common bond in the term "history," but distinguish them as "history as record" and "history as art."

First, then, let us examine the relation of history-as-record to science. History in this sense is the record of any particular, whether it be the assassination of Julius Caesar, the fact that a dinosaur once existed in a specific time and place, or an eclipse of sun or moon. It contains in itself no principle of selection; but it develops such a principle and becomes significant when it is related to a science. Indeed no science of existential nature could exist without it. It is the record of fact which constitutes the data of science. The facts to be inquired into and recorded are designated by the problems of the science. Thus geology will raise such questions as: "When and how were certain limestone rocks formed?" as a part of its larger question: "What is the nature of rocks, and how are different rocks to be classified and related?" The answer is an historical record. Biology will ask when certain crustacea not now to be found alive, did live, and where they lived. Again the answer is an historical record of fact. Or a man may be studying the laws of heredity, and to that end he will ask the effects of crossing certain breeds of sweet peas; he will then record the results of experiments with these and draw inferences from the recorded results. Now these very obvious truisms point to two vitally important conclusions: existential science cannot exist without history; existential science yields the principle of selection and the inferential deductions necessary to give meaning to historical record. History as a record of man's past is simply an instance of this type of record and must look to a science of man to pose questions and draw inferences providing respectively its basis of selection and the interpretation of its findings.

In every science it is necessary to develop a general methodology and also contributory technique and controls of observation and recording. In so far as valid observation and recording are governed by certain principles common to all fields we may be said to have a science of history-as-record. In so far as there are principles governing recording in one field as different from recording in another, such principles might be said to constitute a branch of the science of history-as-record.

Actually this interplay of recording the particulars and seeking and systematizing the

universals is going on all about us in the human world and constitutes a very large part of our progress in knowledge. Yet, curiously enough, the professional "historian" frequently ignores it entirely, or refers to it in a resentful and slighting manner as if history-as-record in this sense were not quite worthy of the name "History," but were a kind of poor relation existing in unworthy subjection to the natural sciences. He prefers to think of history as autonomous, as properly the record of human activity, and very generally today as a *science* in itself.

How are we to understand this attitude? What is its justification? How can we resolve this conflict? The origin and partial justification of this attitude lies in the fact that records have been made for many centuries dealing primarily with human activities, which were produced independently of, and parallel or even prior to, the development of the sciences. They have been termed histories. The origin and partial justification of the attitude can also be seen in the attempts made in connection with this activity to discover laws of valid observation and recording even to enunciate general principles of human development, such as the cyclical theory of human cultures, the evolutionary, the economic, the geographical, the racial. Moreover, in the development of our intellectual life, the specific social "sciences," politics, economics and sociology, are of more recent appearance, or at least of more recent development, than is history in this loose sense of the term. It would seem then that the historian has some basis for thinking of history as primarily the record of human activities, as specific in field, autonomous in development, and at least potentially scientific in some sense.

In order to reconcile the conflict we need to revert to our original distinctions, of science as dealing with universals and history with particulars. History as a record of human activities furnishes us with data for a science of man. But we should look to the science to pose the questions for historical inquiry and to make the inferences from the data supplied by history. A science of man cannot exist without a history of man; but a history of man will become practicable and significant only when adequate scientific questions have been raised designating the facts and aspects of facts to be

investigated and recorded, and when that science interprets the records and draws from them the significant inferences.

Yet, when this has been agreed to, both the layman and the professional historian are left with a sense of dissatisfaction with an undefined inadequacy in the statement. It is not alone that this view implies the sterility of much historical work which has been and is being done, nor that it implies that history must wait upon development in social or anthropological science, though both of these corollaries are obvious. It is that men are dimly aware that they have gained something and hope to gain more from "history" as they have heard and read it than is explicable in terms of the meager findings of social "science" to date.

What is this something? Primarily it is an enrichment of the experiential content of life. As an embodied being, man is limited in direct sensory experience to a fairly small spacial-temporal range; and because of certain tendencies to uniformities within groups, he is frequently narrowly limited in social and cultural experiences. Let us, for example, suppose him to be a twentieth century white American Protestant who has never travelled outside of two southern states. His acquaintance with Orientals, Europeans, native-Africans and South Americans may be nil; his acquaintance with Jews, Roman Catholics and Negroes is confined to casual contacts in relationships so narrowly defined by prejudice as effectively to debar him from insight into life as they experience it; it may even be that his acquaintance with those outside his own economic class is similarly limited by restricted contacts and of blinded prejudice. Through the study of history he may be enabled vicariously to experience the sharing of life and culture of an alien people, a people separated from him by spacial, temporal, cultural, or psychological barriers who, without historical aid would be wholly outside his range of experience. The proper study of history enlarges and enriches his experience as truly as the proper use of microscope or telescope. In this sense history is certainly distinct from, and independent of, the existential sciences. It is autonomous and unique, and its proper subject matter is man. But it is not a science; it is rather an art. It is

related more to the imagination than to the rational intellect. It serves a different purpose, akin to that of literature or painting, rather than as the partner of science.

If in this sense history is an art, what is its purpose and what methods are suitable to it? As we have already discovered, its purpose in this case is to so represent particular past human events as to enable its student imaginatively to re-live them in such a manner as to gain insight into experiences alien to him as a physically-limited animal being, and as a psychologically-limited social being.

Three questions confront the historian-artist immediately. Of what is a representation to be made? What aspects are to be developed? What means as symbols are to be used?

To the first question we can answer quite simply: those human events that are remote in time, place, circumstance, or outlook from the public for whom the work of art is designed, afford natural material for the historical artist. Thinking in terms of universal and enduring art, however, it is apparent that in some sense every event has that unique quality which renders it in some sense remote from every other event and so significant in enriching human experience if it be properly interpreted. An art of history, however, which neglects remote epochs of the long past that grows more rather than less remote with the passage of time would obviously be a very incomplete art of history. And the artistic presentation of human history would actually be almost universally proportioned to that current in our schools, in which the most familiar is given by far the most extensive treatment, and the ancient and the alien is dismissed with a few vague general statements.

What aspects of human events is the historian-artist to bring out? Obviously he must seek to present two opposing aspects harmoniously. He must bring out the underlying similarity, those elements that are analogous to the experience of his public or, in terms of universal enduring art, those that are common to all human experience, and so enable the reader, hearer, or spectator to enter vicariously into the experience of the persons represented. He must also bring out the significant differences in habit or outlook which will enable the

reader to transcend his own limitations of habit and outlook.

What means, then, will be suitable to his end? Obviously he cannot reproduce the total event. He must both delimit it, pluck it as it were from its context in the universe, and also represent it symbolically in some manner. It may be that the historical work of art which is cast in book form need not be so brief as to be readable in one sitting, although that cast in dramatic form must be. But it is probable that even the printed historical work of art is more effective if brought into such compass as readily to be comprehended as a whole.

Granted that this limitation has been made, the historian-artist has also the problem of medium. He seeks a medium which will be widely and enduringly intelligible, which will be stimulating to the imagination, which is intimately related to human life, and which will be enduring. The symbolic language of algebra, for instance, would be an extremely poor form of symbolism for the historian as artist. It is intelligible to the very small minority; it evokes only ideas, not concrete images; it is related only to the highly abstract intellectual processes and through them to the measurable aspects of life. It leads the mind from, rather than to, the particular and concrete. The languages of pictures, models, and dramatic action are in certain respects excellent languages for the historian. They are of almost universal and of very enduring intelligibility; they are extremely concrete in that which they signify. The language of words is intermediate between these two in suitability as a medium. It is wider in intelligibility than algebraic symbolism, far more limited than pictorial, mimetic, or modeled symbolism. It is capable of being more specific and concrete than algebra, but less capable of concreteness and specificity in a condensed form than the other languages. It is intimately associated with a vast range of human experience, yet inadequate to others.

When it comes to durability of the medium of record, action and the spoken word are, of course, most transient in themselves, although means for their indefinite repetition may today be devised. The printed word and the modern photograph have a duration of a few generations in their common material forms. More

durable media can be found for those historical works which prove themselves to be of great worth, and probably should be found for these alone. Since, however, the historian must give space-time specificity to that which he records even as a work of art, he is seldom able to use pure dramatization, modeling, or picture. He must in some manner indicate the localization of what is represented in space and time. While it is possible that better historical symbols may yet be devised—and indeed it is doubtful whether worse could be devised for history-as-art—the best time and place symbols at present available are numbers, words, and location on charts or maps, the latter certainly being preferable to the former. The historian-artist should therefore select his medium or media, and obtain a technical mastery of them in producing his work of art. It need hardly be said that such a work will not defeat itself by bearing on its face the obtrusive record of the technical processes by which it was created. It will not be spattered over with footnote numbers, indexing, bibliographical aids, and self-identifications by the author. The artist's tools will be kept where they belong, in the work shop or studio, and not stuck all over the finished product.

An inquiry into the relation of history to science and to art, then, yields us an interesting and suggestive result—namely that history may rightly be considered as both under different aspects. It is science in two senses: first, as a record it is an integral part of every existential science, the science as rational inquiry posing the questions for history to answer and then drawing from the answers the inferences which give them meaning; second as valid record it is subject to principles or laws which constitute a science of history-as-record. On the other hand, history is also art, the art of enriching the experiential content of human living by representing past human events. As such it has a body of principles of which the science of history-as-record constitute a part, but only a part. In its artistic role it contributes to man's intellectual, emotional and ethical or social development through his imagination. Both of these aspects are outgrowths of the human habit of inquiry into, and recording of, the past. Both spring from a deep desire for greater fullness of life, the life of the intellect.

2. Pupils led by supervisor discussed how a play might be worked out and examined a play in a reader in which a narrator was used.
3. A mural was suggested and on the next day the student teacher who was an art major and the supervisor discussed what pupils would like in a mural.
4. Committees were appointed but not many until later. As the work on the unit proceeded some committees completed their work and others were formed.
5. The class decided to carry out both purposes to give a play and make a mural.

IV. Overview or Presentation:

1. The supervisor talked briefly about the circumstances leading to each milestone in man's progress toward freedom and led pupils to the idea of a grand finale in which "man" would be represented by a boy standing high above an assemblage of people of many nations and in which the "United Nations' Song" would be sung. This secured the real enthusiasm of the whole class.
2. The art student then helped the pupils to plan a mural with the central figure that of a young man who had partially won his freedom, surrounded by the scenes depicting steps in winning that freedom. (Supervisor and student had in the meantime consulted with the art instructor)

V. Outline of Subject Matter:

- A. Palestine at time of Christ
 1. Governmental control
 2. Conditions in country (economic and social)
 3. "Sermon on the Mount" and location of event
 4. Date of sermon, A. D. 29
- B. England in reign of King John
 1. Stories of some events leading up to this period from the time of "William the Conqueror"
 2. Economic and social conditions at time of King John
 3. Controversy between King John and Church and Bishop Langton
 4. Revolt of the Barons
 5. The Magna Charta, 1215
 6. Location of Runnymede
- C. Migration of Pilgrims and signing of the

Mayflower Compact (Much of this, of course, was simply review)

1. The Virginia Company
2. Landing of the Pilgrims
3. Signing the Mayflower Compact, November 20, 1620
4. Location of Provincetown Harbor
- D. England at time of James II
 1. Stories of period leading up to the reign of James II
 2. Cruel and arbitrary rule of James II
 3. The "Glorious Revolution" of 1688
 4. "Declaration of Rights" and "Bill of Rights"
 5. The English Parliament
- E. American Revolutionary War to and including the Declaration of Independence (This, too, could be done easily and quickly because it was a review with added details)
 1. Causes of the war
 2. Reasons for declaring independence
 3. Rather detailed information about writing the Declaration, the committee appointed to make it, and its contents
- F. Period of Westward Expansion into the Northwest Territory
 1. Expansion and claims of different states
 2. Controversy
 3. The Northwest Ordinance
 - a. Main provisions as to religion, slavery, and education and guarantee of democratic government
 - b. How the provision for admitting new states became a pattern used in the development of our country
- G. The "Critical Period" in American history
 1. Articles of Confederation, weaknesses, and unsettled conditions in the country
 2. Events leading to the Constitutional Convention
 3. Constitutional Convention of 1787
 4. Views of some important men who signed the document
- H. Beginning our government under the Constitution
 1. Ratification of the Constitution with objections of some states
 2. Arguments for and against adding the Bill of Rights

- 3. Amendments proposed
- 4. Amendments adopted
- 5. Main provisions of Bill of Rights
- 6. Some views and acts of men influential in high government circles at the time
- I. France just before and during the French Revolution
 - 1. Conditions in France in reign of Louis XIV
 - 2. Palace of Versailles
 - 3. Conditions in reign of Louis XVI
 - 4. Character of Louis XVI
 - 5. His family
 - 6. The French Revolution
 - a. Suffering of the people
 - b. Extravagance of the Court
 - c. The Bell of the Bastille
 - d. National Assembly
 - e. March on Versailles and on Paris
 - f. The Declaration of Rights
 - 7. Fate of the Royal family
 - 8. End of the Revolution
 - 9. Some influences of period on United States
- J. The period of the Civil War
(This, also, was a review)
 - 1. Lincoln's reasons for proclaiming the emancipation of slaves on occupied territory
 - 2. Why other slaves were not at that time freed
 - 3. Date, January 1, 1863
 - 4. Signing of the document
- K. Period of the First World War
 - 1. Causes of the First World War
 - 2. Peace terms
(Battles left out)
 - 3. Constitutional provision for President's annual message on "the state of the Union"
- L. Period of the Second World War
(Pupils had followed it, of course, and special class time was given to reading their school papers. The play was given on April 17, 1945, only a short time before the San Francisco meeting of delegates)
- VI. Readings and Materials:
(This list is not available here)
- VII. Learning Activities:
 - A. Orienting activities
 - 1. Examining folder of twelve great documents
 - 2. Searching for a play written as this one might be written so as to use it as a model
 - B. Constructing and sewing activities
 - 1. Making shields and swords
 - 2. Making king's and queen's crowns
 - 3. Making Pilgrim's hats, collars and buckles
 - 4. Making Churchill's cigar and Roosevelt's cigarette holder and cigarette
(We discussed whether or not these two things would tend to cheapen the play. The children thought not if they were handled in a dignified fashion)
 - C. Practice activities
 - 1. Figure-drawing in art
 - 2. Getting perspective in art
 - 3. Use of paint brushes of different sizes for certain purposes
 - 4. Use of spray-gun in painting
 - 5. Mixing paints
 - 6. Practicing songs
 - D. Expressive and appreciative activities
 - 1. Pencil drawings to be transferred to mural
 - 2. Painting
 - 3. Writing scenes and narrator's parts
 - 4. Planning stage settings
 - 5. Representing historical characters
 - 6. Practicing scenes with criticism of other members of the class
 - 7. Planning and staging the grand finale where many children were on the stage
 - 8. Singing songs
 - E. Research activities
 - 1. Using library card file
 - 2. Using index and table of contents
 - 3. Skimming to find answers to questions and to get further needed information on a topic
 - 4. Searching in picture files and in books for pictures of costumes, shields of the period of the Magna Charta, etc.
 - 5. Using encyclopedias
 - 6. Searching in various sources at home
(Example: *Child Life Magazine*, containing a story about the Magna Charta with pictures to illustrate it)
 - 7. Seeing movie films of "The Constitutional Convention of 1787" and "The United States Bill of Rights"

8. Listening to the radio while the President of the United States gave his annual message on "The State of the Union"
9. Reading school newspapers, city newspapers and magazines

F. Serving on Committees and in individual capacities as business manager, etc.

VIII. Culminating Activities:

1. The play was produced accompanied by appropriate instrumental music and songs. Tickets had been sold and advertising posters made and placed many places around the community and city.

An evening performance was given and the proceeds from the sale of the tickets which remained after expenses were paid were used to purchase a flagpole to be left by the class as a memorial to the Laboratory School.

2. Exhibited at the entrance to the auditorium on the evening of the performance was the mural which had been made in the art period. It is twelve feet long and four feet wide, and is painted on insulating board. (The satiny finish of this board takes poster paint perfectly.) In the center of the poster is a large figure of a strong, clear-eyed youth who has obviously already broken several bonds (chain links) but is not yet entirely free, and in the fleecy clouds about him are pictured twelve scenes showing man's progress toward freedom.

IX. Evaluation:

- A. Objective test on the unit to evaluate learning of social studies content and generalizations. (Various types of items were used.)
- B. There was continual evaluation by the children in their criticisms as the unit proceeded. (They evaluated and selected materials for the purpose at hand, criticized writing of scenes, the acting of parts, etc.)
- C. The public evaluated the culminating activity. We had several written evaluations and one was a long letter from a rather well known radio script writer who happened to be in the city, saw posters advertising the play and came out to see it. The letter was most interesting

and, of course the pupils were thrilled.
D. The objectives were in a great measure attained.

**MAN'S RISE TOWARD FREEDOM
SCENE I**

THE SERMON ON THE MOUNT

Narrator:

We are living in critical times in which are found many obstacles to man's progress toward peace and freedom. Throughout the ages, man has striven to free himself from the bonds which have kept him from gaining security and happiness and from rising to the heights of human development. Recalling the great steps thus far made should be of much value in gaining the knowledge and courage to go on working toward the goal. We, the pupils of this school, now present the story of the rights of man as told in several great documents. As the first great milestone in man's advance toward righteousness, peace, and freedom, we will give "The Sermon on the Mount," which took place in the year A. D. 29. Two disciples, a rich man, a poor man, and a shepherd meet and talk of the sermon.

CURTAIN RISES

Shepherd:

Master, I have returned thy sheep to the stable.

Rich Master:

It is well. It will soon be dark and they will be safe. Didst thee faithfully tend the sheep all day?

Shepherd:

Yea, except for a short time when I went to listen to a sermon which was preached by Jesus of Nazareth. He went up a small mountain and there sat down and with his twelve disciples standing around him and a crowd of people in front of him, he preached a wondrous sermon. (looking toward two men approaching) Behold, there come two of Jesus' disciples, Matthew and John. They can tell about the sermon better than I can. Matthew and John, will ye tell my master of "The Sermon on the Mount?"

John:

Didst not ye both hear it?

Master:

Nay, I was occupied with my many business affairs.

Shepherd:

Yea, I heard it and pondered long upon it, but I know not yet all that it meaneth.

Matthew:

I believe it was a wondrous plea for each person to work for righteousness, mercy, and peace throughout the world.

Beggar:

Saith thou each person? I didst not go to hear the sermon for I am only a beggar and thought nothing was expected of such a lowly one as I.

Master:

Thou art right; such as thee can do nothing for the good of the world.

John:

Nay, that is not so. Jesus teaches that every individual, no matter how lowly, if he be righteous is worthy and can be of great value to the world.

Matthew:

Yea, he saith, "Blessed are the poor in spirit, the meek, the merciful, and the peacemakers; theirs is the kingdom of heaven."

John:

Yea, and he taught us a prayer which some day all the world may pray.

Narrator:

Yes, the Christian religion glorifies the individual, and democracy recognizes the worth and rights of each person. Since the day of the "Sermon on the Mount," history has recorded many efforts of man to establish the teaching of Jesus and to bring about peace and justice for each individual. Any type of government that does not recognize the worth and importance of the individual man cannot work side-by-side with Christianity.

CURTAIN CLOSES

Music: "Lord's Prayer" (Sung by one or more children)

SCENE II
THE MAGNA CHARTA

Narrator:

Many, many years passed before man reached the next great milestone in gaining his rights. It was during the reign of King John of England in 1215. Even though King John was wicked and tyrannical, his injustice was to the advantage of the people of England because his actions united the nobles who, led by Bishop Langton, demanded their rights. The next scene takes place at Runnymede, England,

where several barons are impatiently waiting for King John.

1st Baron:

Do you suppose King John would dare ignore our request for him to meet us here?

2nd Baron:

We have patiently waited a year for King John to improve his treatment of us. And then when we asked him if he would promise to treat his subjects justly, he gave no response, but requested us to wait until Easter time. Now it is June; he cannot refuse us for he is frightened and we have a strong army (points in direction of forest in background) ready to attack him if he will not sign this Great Charter, which assures us of our rights.

3rd Baron:

If it were possible for him to do so, he would deceive us and only pretend to make a promise, but we have the Magna Charta in which our rights and the rights of the common people, our subjects, are stated. He must put his seal upon it, and then, in the future he cannot say he has not promised any one of these rights.

4th Baron:

Our government in many ways will be based upon law rather than upon force administered by the ruler. He can no longer levy taxes upon us except by our representatives and no man can be thrown into prison and be kept there indefinitely. Here come King John and Bishop Langton now.

(All rise and stand at respectful attention, but look stern and much in earnest.)

All:

Welcome, King John and Bishop Langton.

King John:

I have come to make the promise you have requested.

1st Baron:

Here is the Magna Charta in which are stated all the rights we ask for ourselves and the common people.

Bishop Langton:

Shall I read it to you? (Places paper on table before King John)

4th Baron:

(With disgust) He can't even read!

King John:

(He looks more and more angry—yet afraid) These promises are preposterous! To grant these rights would make me a slave, not

a king!

All Barons:

(Stepping forward purposefully) Sign!!!

King John:

(Goes into a fury of rage, kicks over chairs and table, and breaks sticks, saying) This is outrageous. I won't do it! I won't! I won't! (But then he hears the clash of steel, sees barons draw their swords, and with wax and ring puts his seal on the Magna Charta.)

Music:

"A Mighty Fortress is Our God."

SCENE III
THE MAYFLOWER COMPACT

Narrator:

After more than 400 years, by the making of the Mayflower Compact, the Pilgrims sought to implant in America the rights which had been established in England by the Magna Charta. The third scene takes place on November 21, 1620, in the cabin of the Mayflower in Provincetown Harbor, Cape Cod.

CURTAIN OPENS

John Carver:

My Friends, as you know, because of storms, the Mayflower got off its course and landed north of the region controlled by the Virginia Company. The captain feels that it is foolhardy to try to travel further; our people are weary of the sea so let us plan to stay here even though this is not Virginia.

William Trevor:

(In an aside to Enlish) Ah-ha! We will not be under the Virginia Charter and no one can rule us. We will do as we please.

Thomas Enlish:

Right! There will be no laws to be obeyed.

William Brewster:

Listen, fellow Pilgrims! We must prevent such anarchy as these men suggest.

Ed. Winslow:

Ay! We are law-abiding people. We bring with us to this new land the "rights of Englishmen" as declared in the Magna Charta, but those rights do not permit a man to do as he pleases, but to do that which the group decides is good for all.

(Trevor and Enlish look sullen and disappointed)

Miles Standish:

We, of this Pilgrim Company, must have law, order, and safety.

William Bradford:

Yes, let us draw and sign a compact to take the place of our contract with the Virginia Company.

John Carver:

William Brewster, will you write it?

William Brewster:

I have been thinking of that before. I'll see what I can do. (Sits at the table, picks up a pen, and writes while the others make suggestions. All have a part in the document. Finally, all nod or give some other sign of agreement.)

John Carver:

It is splendid! Under this agreement, we shall ourselves make and enforce such laws as will be for the good of the colony. (Picks up a pen and hands it to Bradford, who signs the Compact first. The others sign, making some comment as they do: "I hope this will be satisfactory"—"This is fine"—"Splendid.")

CURTAIN CLOSES

Narrator:

This Pilgrim colony was the beginning of the first political community in America with a written plan of government of its own making under which the people managed their own affairs and worshipped God as they wished.

Music:

"Old Hundred."

(To be continued in the January, 1947, issue of
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A Stark Outline of Famine

EVELYN ARONSON

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Famine has been described as "a state of extreme hunger suffered by the population of a region as a result of the failure of the ac-

customed food supply." Such a failure can be caused by drought, floods, prolonged winters, cold summers, plagues of various kinds, wars,

or the breakdown of systems of distribution and transportation of foods. Famines are especially common in primitive societies in which methods of food production, preservation and distribution are rudimentary. The Bible tells of famines among the Sumerians, in Palestine in the days of Abraham and Isaac, and in Egypt and neighboring countries in the time of Joseph (the Seven Lean Years caused by drought and locust plagues). China and India, from time immemorial to the present day have been famine areas. Greece, Rome, and medieval Europe have known famines. In Europe, between 1000 and 1850, approximately 450 serious famines have been reported.

Although improved methods of food preservation such as canning and freezing, and the extension of railroad facilities have reduced the severity of famine they still exist today on a large scale. The Irish famine of 1846-1851, caused by potato blight, was the most disastrous European famine of the nineteenth century, resulting in more than a million deaths and contributing to the migration of one and one-half million Irish (principally to the United States) within a decade. This famine was intensified by the poverty of the Irish farmer; in 1841, the average farm in Ireland consisted of less than three acres.

In Russia.—In Russia, there were twelve major famines between 1845 and 1932, of which the earlier ones were caused by recurring drought, increased pressure of population, small-sized farms and primitive agricultural methods. In 1890 the death-rate in rural Russia was thirty per cent higher than for the country as a whole, the result of the failure of crops and inadequate means of transporting food to the blighted areas.

The international blockade against the USSR in 1921-1922 increased the severity of the famine of that period, and a decrease in planting and internal disorganization of the country magnified the seriousness of later Russian famines. Three million persons are said to have starved in the famine of 1932.

In India.—The greatest death toll from famines has occurred in Russia, India and China, with famine virtually endemic at all times in the last two countries. Famine in India has been described as "the exceptional aggravation of a normal misery" and occurs

generally after the failure of the monsoon rains. In India famine is never nation-wide, occurring in a limited area of the country at a given time. The heavy taxation system of the local princes, lack of reserves, primitive agricultural methods and the burdensome caste system have added to the horrors of Indian famines. Between 1860 and 1900, there occurred ten famines in India, resulting in 15,000,000 deaths. In 1943, between 250,000 and 1,000,000 persons died of famine in Bengal alone.

The situation in China, especially northern China, has been much the same. Between 108 B. C. and 1911, 1828 famines ravaged the country, with 9,000,000 deaths occurring between 1876 and 1879.

Effects of Famine.—The effects of famine in Europe and Asia have been disastrous and far-reaching. Disease is the immediate consequence, with cholera, typhus and malaria attacking a weakened population in the Orient and plagues decimating European populations. In general, the diseases endemic to the region fasten upon the inhabitants of the region. Another important result of famine is mass migrations of the survivors, as in the great movement of nomads from the steppes of Asia to Hungary about 3000 B.C. and the large Arab dispersal from Arabia in A. D. 600. In India and China, famines have not led to mass movements of population, being weaker in their total effect than the influence of religion and tradition.

However, famines have not been without effect on religion and ritual. The worship of rain deities and the fertility rites of innumerable cults indicate experience with famine, as do certain primitive social customs like abortion, infanticide and cannibalism. Many African tribes are still practicing Malthusians.

In medieval Europe, repeated famines clamped down feudalism on a suffering population for many centuries. They produced also an increase in the price of grain, a rise in interest rates, as well as religious fear, exaltation and mania.

Mitigating Famine.—Primitive peoples sought to overcome famine by the storage of grain and water. The Sumerians evolved a system of irrigation; the Arabs in Spain and Africa invented a water-wheel for irrigation.

and the Mohammedan rulers of India practiced irrigation. The Pueblos, Incas, Egyptians, and Arabs made use of granaries, and Indian princes distributed food and money in stricken villages and gave grants for well-digging and farming.

In Europe, famine-legislation developed early. Although Charlemagne considered the famine of A. D. 780 a visitation of God and caused masses to be said, he forbade the export of food, regulated wheat prices and maintained feeding stations. In England, the Assize of Bread of 1202 was an attempt to prevent speculation in bread by varying its weight with the price. The Assize of Bread and Ale of 1266 was a similar attempt to fix prices. Bad harvests in England between 1527 and 1536 probably hastened the development of poor-relief legislation, although the government let the church and the wealthy feed the starving.

In India England has made her most spectacular contribution to famine control. After the disastrous Orissa famine (1867), *tuccaree*, or cash relief to farmers, was granted under Sir George Campbell. The Code of 1883 added tax-remission to *tuccaree* grants. The development by the British of railroads in India and of a modern irrigation system have mitigated famine conditions in that country. Two sorts of irrigation canals were introduced—inundation canals and canals of perennial supply, according to the character of the terrain. Attempts have also been made by the British to enrich the depleted soil of India.

In the United States.—The United States has not been without hunger, but since Jamestown never has it approached famine proportions. In 1931-1932, the farmers of the Midwest went hungry in the midst of an adequate food supply, from sheer inability to buy. During the depression 1930's, many urban dwellers also suffered from lack of food.

The United States, however, has done much to prevent famine by direct and indirect means. Rotation of crops, soil conservation and reforestation programs, flood control through colossal dams, have been for the past twenty years part of a vast national plan to prevent floods and droughts. Subsidies to farmers have maintained their purchasing power and regulated the production of crops. Our giant network of railroads and normal production of processed foods should insure reserves and proper distribution of food.

Post-War Famine.—The United States has been able to alleviate famine in Europe and Asia after World War I and during and after World War II. American agencies administered relief programs in the 1920's in Armenia, Poland, the Ukraine and Russia, establishing kitchens, distributing seed-grain, and giving medical relief.

During and after World War II, the relief program was administered, not by private agencies, but by the United Nations, in Poland, Austria, Greece, and other countries, whose farms, stores, and transportation facilities had been shattered by the war. This vast program has been carried on largely by UNRRA, which is scheduled to end in 1947. The United Nations Food and Agricultural Organization, begun in Quebec in October, 1945, plans to take over the work of UNRRA. Transportation of surpluses to devastated areas will be an important feature of the program. The All-India Food Conference of 1943 decided on the same procedure, which will include the distribution of seeds and of farming equipment.

World War II has produced the important principle that famine relief is no longer a local or national concern. With food transported by land, water, and air, the agriculturally rich nations, notably the United States, Canada, and Argentina, are committed to feeding the stricken countries of the world.

The Basic Weakness of National Socialism

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Political leaders learn after gaining power that it is easier to oppose a policy than to create a new plan of action; taking over a government involves the assumption of great responsibilities. Under those conditions the revolutionary ideal becomes secondary and a new group of followers who are only lukewarm in the support of party principles gain prominence. In history, the condition of Christianity after it became a state religion illustrates this principle. During the persecutions it took courage and conviction to believe in the new religion. Afterwards, opportunists joined the faith, and their main concern was in the perpetuation of a lofty idealism by the achievement of power. National Socialism suffered the same fate after 1933. Thousands joined the party after having seen the light. Over night Communists and Socialists became nominal followers of Hitler; as a matter of fact their allegiance to the party was determined by personal advantage and self-interest.

A revolution of this type invariably creates anarchists, and appeals to those who live by violence and believe in no stable order. The other extreme is represented by the conservatives who saw a tool in Hitlerism and regarded it as a protector of their interests. To balance these two forces is a difficult task, and Hitler throughout his regime had to compromise and find a middle road between the two extremes. The term National Socialism itself combines contradictory tendencies; on the one hand a blind worship of the fatherland; on the other, an attempt to extend the principles of justice and humanity to the economic life. Socialism demands full and complete concentration and cannot be subordinated to narrow nationalistic considerations.

Furthermore, there were personal differences in the new government, especially between Goebbels and Goering, the former intensely gifted in the arts of oratory and propaganda, not popular, however, with the people; the

latter a conservative, with aristocratic pretensions and a love for medals and luxuries. All these factors undermined the stability of the government.

It is clear today that Hitlerism made many mistakes in Germany, particularly in the realm of economic organization. A large group of peasants were alienated by strict inheritance laws, and by a rigorous control of production, prices, and the distribution of foodstuffs. Hitler claimed that he was saving the farmers from the avaricious hold of the financiers by keeping farms intact, and by his doctrine of blood and soil, but at the same time the farmer became a victim of government bureaucracy.

A strict system of rationing was started many years before the war began, with the result that vital materials became scarce, and the German Hausfrau had to use many substitutes. The system of rationing did not improve even after Germany became the virtual master of Europe, and thus the individual profited very little from the conquests. The supervision of the state was tyrannical; party members would come into the homes and check the pots and pans. This naturally caused antagonism on the part of citizens. The organized campaigns for winter help made charity compulsory. In this respect the Germans could have learned a great deal from the marvelous advertising techniques used by American big business.

In industry there was a steady conflict between Nazi party representatives and the employers. Taxes were high, and while many industrialists found ways and means to escape payment, they resented the party interference in their organization. The laws relating to economic organization were extremely complicated and required thousands of administrators who surrounded themselves with red tape. The middle class suffered even more heavily, especially in the war years, when small businesses were regarded as inefficient and unessential. The efficiency of National Socialism in eco-

nomics seems to have been vastly overrated. Already before the war many army leaders complained that the party was defying natural economic laws.

Organized labor in the Third Reich lost its right to strike. In fact, the most heavy penalties were attached to work stoppage. While unemployment was virtually abolished through public works and rearmament, the average German worked harder and received less money than before 1933. The party made a half-hearted attempt to stimulate enthusiasm through public entertainment, pleasure cruises, and the promise of new cars after the war, but the years passed, and the dreams showed no prospect of coming true.

The crusade against Christianity in Germany was another blunder, for the Christian churches exerted a strong influence upon a large part of the population. The example of Martin Luther indicates that the German takes his religion rather seriously, and that he is a man of definite principles. In the Weimar Republic the Catholic Center Party had a strong hold upon the Rhineland. The new German religion made Hitler a saviour, and gave him divine powers. He was to replace Jesus Christ, who, by many Nazi philosophies, was regarded as a minor Jewish prophet. A new heaven, Valhalla, was established, an ideal paradise for warriors. It appears doubtful that this heaven was as attractive for the average man as the Christian concept of the after life. Nor could the mythology built around Wotan, an old tribal deity, compete with the richness and fervor of the Christian ritual that had been transmitted through centuries. The party leaders did not realize that a new religion cannot be established over night, and that it takes a long time to create a new faith.

From a political standpoint, the campaign for German religion constituted a first-rate blunder, for it alienated the church leaders, and their devout followers who regarded this attempt as a sinful rebellion. During the Hitler regime, public trials took place during which monks and nuns were accused of gross immorality. It was a device to get money from the ecclesiastical orders, and to undermine their hold upon education. However, the Nazis were scarcely able to prove their point, and the Catholics of the Rhineland felt that these ac-

cusations were personal insults, for they looked upon nuns and monks as mediators between man and God. The Nazis made martyrs out of thousands of ministers. They did not break their power, nor did they overcome the spirit of resistance on the part of religious organizations in Germany. In 1942 the Bishops of Germany declared:

We German Bishops protest against every disregard of personal freedom. We demand judicial proof of all sentences and release of all fellow citizens who have been deprived of their liberty without proof of an act punishable by imprisonment.

Hitler knew that he would not be able to accomplish a wholesale conversion of the older generation, hence he tried with all his power to change the spirit of German youth. The process of indoctrination started with fairy tales about the glorious Führer, continued through grammar school and high school, was intensified by youth organizations, and was finally completed by party membership. He hoped to create a new generation: Spartans of the twentieth century, addicted to militarism, fanatical in their loyalty to the state. But anyone who has studied the psychology of youth knows that it is inclined to be rebellious and that it will fight against despotism; moreover, young people like freedom, and the steady parades and military exercises which occupied a large part of their spare time did not encourage individualism and self-expression.

The leadership of the youth organizations was frequently based upon favoritism, and some chieftains like Corporal Himmelstoss became arrogant and did not use their power wisely. It must also be remembered that young people tend to have an idealistic philosophy of life. National Socialism tried to appeal to this idealism by encouraging hero worship, but to many youths the party program was too realistic. Also there were the long periods of military service, and later the prospect of active fighting. How could a young man plan for a career? How could he accomplish his ambitions in professional life when he knew that the war would last for a long time?

The Nazi program alienated many educators by its emphasis upon physical training and by neglecting the foundations of sound scholarship. Oratory in the classroom replaced serious

research. The German professor has always been a stickler for scholarship and for an exhaustive knowledge of facts. The students brought up under the Nazi regime lacked the essential foundations of knowledge. The educational training was speeded up; academic standards, especially in medicine, were lowered to such an extent that the efficiency of the medical profession was impaired. One of the most serious handicaps became the lack of skilled doctors, particularly after the war reached total proportions. Nor did the German university professors favor the complete regimentation of thought. The state should have left them at least an illusion of freedom. Now if they studied the achievements of scholars who were ostracized by the Third Reich, they faced dismissal. From the Nazi standpoint it was unfortunate that not all the creations of civilization had been accomplished by Aryans, or at least by those who favored the ideals of National Socialism.

The most explosive conflict, however, took place between the party and the military interests. Most of the generals belonged to the Prussian aristocracy. They were conservatives in their political opinion, and probably the majority favored the restoration of the monarchy and regarded the Third Reich merely as an interlude. Hitler sought to undermine their power by creating a new caste of officers who were blindly loyal to the party program, and who did not have the aristocratic background. He regarded himself as an outstanding military leader, and nothing pleased him so much as admiration for his military genius. Some of the generals did not share this opinion. They thought that his experience during the world war as a corporal scarcely qualified him for the position of supreme commander in chief. They did not favor suicide stands, which to them were futile political gestures, and if they had gained power in Germany they would not have carried the war to the bitter end.

Hitler realized that their support was lukewarm, and he used SS troops as weapons against the regular army. They formed the elite, had the best equipment, the most dashing uniforms, and received the best food. However, those factors created even greater antagonism. Thus Hitler needed special troops to watch the old line officers, and also to guard against popu-

lar unrest at home. He was never quite certain about the army and the suspicion deepened when attempts were made on his life and when German generals deserted in Russia. His counter weapon was unparalleled ruthlessness, ending in a wholesale purge of the officer corps, but again the efficiency of the army was seriously impaired.

Even the vaunted propaganda machine exhibited defects. Too much stress was laid upon victories, and when the air raids came, they were minimized, and the morale of the people disintegrated. After Stalingrad, special amusements were curtailed, a step which might have increased production and perhaps made the average citizen more conscious of the gravity of the situation, but which created at the same time a graveyard atmosphere, a feeling of complete hopelessness. In the United States such a measure would have caused a veritable revolution. Perhaps this illustrates the difference between the German and American character.

Hitler himself made the vital mistake of surrounding himself with advisers who were in the habit of painting optimistic pictures. He was often misinformed about the actual situation and generals who contradicted him were invariably dismissed. The invasion of Russia was undertaken in the belief that the war would last for only a short time. Moreover, before 1943 economic mobilization had not been complete. This again reflected the incurable optimism of the leader.

In the field of foreign policy, Hitler had too much faith in the efficiency of the Tripartite pact. The policies and actions of the three nations and their satellites were not sufficiently coordinated. They lacked the economic strength necessary to win a long war. If Hitler had not been overwhelmed by his easy victories, he would have offered England generous peace terms in 1940, and he would have started his attack against Russia without having been obliged to fight a two front war. On the other hand, if he planned to crush England completely, he should have made an all-out attack after Dunkirk. To fight a two front war and to antagonize the United States—those actions show Hitler's limitations. One of the unsolved mysteries of the war relates to his failure to attack Gibraltar and invade North Africa at a time when England was in a weak condition.

Dutch Wealth and English Envy

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The commercial prosperity of Holland in the seventeenth century was regarded by many Englishmen with mixed feelings of respect, awe, envy, bitterness and finally hostility. Sir Josiah Child was correct in saying that "The Prodigious increase of the Netherlands in their Domestick and Foreign Trade, Riches, and multitude of Shipping" was "the envy of the present, and may be the wonder of all future Generations."¹ Englishmen from Walter Raleigh to Sir William Temple a half century later, and to Joshua Gee later still, lamented that "the Dutch exceed all other nations" in "enlarging their acquaintance," in "opening new channels of trade, and in bartering commodity against commodity."²

If English rivals were exasperated by the forwardness of the Dutch, they also believed that measures could be adopted to promote England's trading interests to the detriment of the Dutch. In order to do this, Englishmen must cease sitting idly by, bemoaning their fate, said Thomas Mun. "But if any man allege the Dutch proverb, *Live and let others live*; I answer, that the Dutchmen notwithstanding their own Proverb, doe not only in these Kingdoms, encroach upon our livings, but also in other forraign parts of our trade (where they have power) they do hinder and destroy us in our lawful course of living, hereby taking the bread out of our mouth, which we shall never prevent by plucking the pot from their nose."³ Finally England roused herself. Beginning with the Navigation Act of 1651, commercial regulations were enacted with the purpose, among others, of striking at Dutch trade and shipping. English jealousy and anger, to which the writers mentioned in this paper

attest, culminated in naval warfare against the Dutch.

If Holland was an object of wonder to Temple who believed "that no country can be found either in this present age, or upon record of any story, where so vast a trade has been managed, as in the narrow compass of the four maritime Provinces of this commonwealth,"⁴ still, according to Sir Josiah Child, there was no profound mystery about her commercial supremacy, for the means by which the Dutch advanced themselves "are sufficiently obvious."⁵ Statistical proof of the quantity of Dutch trade was not demanded by contemporary Englishmen. It was obvious to them that Holland had become "a magazine or collection of all the products and manufactures of the world, which they [the Dutch] disperse over all Europe, the merchants and shopkeepers are everywhere their debtors, and money is brought to them from almost all countries."⁶ But Sir Josiah Child felt that he ought to point up his warnings by facts, and so in his preface he related with horror that twenty-two Dutch ships were engaged in the Russian trade as against one English, and that the Dutch Baltic trade had increased tenfold while English commerce in the Baltic had declined by one-half. Small wonder then, that Child warned: "The season cries aloud to us, to be up and doing, before our Fields become un-occupied, and before the Dutch get too much the whip hand of us."

If, as Sir Josiah Child declared, the reasons for the Dutch rise are obvious, one might expect to find them mentioned in contemporary writings. Temple, Mun, Raleigh, Gee, the English merchant Lewis Roberts, and the Dutch statesman John de Witt, among others, agree in their ascriptions although each may place emphasis upon different causes. Mun, for in-

¹ *A New Discourse of Trade* (London, 1692), p. 1. The book was written in 1669.

² Joshua Gee, *The Trade and Navigation of Great Britain Considered* (London, edition of 1767), p. 222. The pamphlet appeared in 1729.

³ *England's Treasure by Forraign Trade* (London, 1664), p. 9. The pamphlet was written about 1630 and was published in 1664 by the author's son, Sir John Mun.

⁴ "Observations upon the United Provinces of the Netherlands," *Works* (London, 1757), I, 182. Temple was ambassador to Holland during the late 1660's.

⁵ Josiah Child, *A New Discourse of Trade*, p. 1.

⁶ Joshua Gee, *The Trade and Navigation of Great Britain Considered*, p. 223.

stance, quoted approvingly a proclamation of the States General of the United Provinces, dated 1624, that "The great Fishing and catching of Herrings is the chiefest trade and principal Gold Mine of the United Provinces."⁷ After collating the analyses of various seventeenth century writers, one ends with the following reasons for Dutch commercial prosperity.

II

The strategic location of the Netherlands was emphasized by Temple and John de Witt.⁸ Lying between the Baltic trade on one side and the Mediterranean trade on the other, Holland also controlled the main routes into and out of Germany, and thus she was favorably situated to become the great commercial entrepot of the period. Grain, timber, hemp, flax, naval stores and iron from the Baltic; wine, stone, grain and minerals from her own hinterland; colonial products; native commodities such as fish, butter and cheese—all these flowed into Holland and thence were transported where they were demanded.

The geographical factor requires little emphasis, but must never be neglected just because it seems so obvious. Geography influenced nearly every aspect of Dutch economic activity. Their proximity to the great herring and whaling areas, said Mun, early enticed the Dutch into the fishing trade, and the profits from fishing laid the basis for subsequent commercial expansion.⁹ Mun was vexed because the Dutch were poaching in English waters, and he might have exaggerated the pivotal importance of fishing in order to arouse his countrymen from their lethargy. The fact remains that ever since one William Beukelz perfected the art of curing herring some time after the herring had migrated from the Baltic to the North Sea, the Dutch had stolen the field in selling fish to the Catholic countries.

Their great carrying trade required a huge shipbuilding industry, and in no other enter-

prise does the inventiveness in manufactures and cunning in traffic that Sir Thomas Overbury noted stand forth so clearly.¹⁰ Dutch shipyards built for all the world, and even their enemies admitted that Dutch ships were cheaper, roomier, and yet as seaworthy as those of England. Child, in asserting the superiority of Dutch shipping, was only affirming Raleigh's earlier acknowledgements. The Dutch adapted their ships to fit anticipated conditions, and instead of making a ship do double duty as a war ship and a commercial vessel, they built each kind and relied upon convoys to protect merchant ships. Specialization in construction also meant, for example, the production of broad flat-bottomed hulls of great capacity for the Baltic trade in bulky products. For the high seas the Dutch built stouter, faster, and less capacious ships, and here the English were at less of a disadvantage.

But the Dutch could also build much more cheaply, especially after their prosperity brought interest rates to as low as three per cent. By means of quantity purchases of naval stores and special arrangements with the Baltic nations; by the use of machinery and the most advanced technical processes, even to standardization of parts; and because of a highly skilled, well-paid labor supply, the Dutch could turn out a ship at one-half the cost of a similar English model.¹¹ Little wonder that the Dutch could carry goods at cheaper rates. After the English Navigation Acts requiring that European goods be brought in ships of the producing country, the Scandinavians bought great numbers of Dutch ships. Even Englishmen objected to some of the restrictions of these acts because their own shipping was too costly and inconvenient, and English shipbuilders were too slow in imitating the advanced Dutch methods. It is not surprising that in 1678 there were 12,000 foreign-built ships, mostly Dutch, in the English merchant marine.¹²

The Dutch plied their shipping throughout the known world, and their skill in opening and exploiting commercial opportunities was

⁷ Thomas Mun, *England's Treasure by Forraign Trade*, p. 186. See *Harleian Miscellany*, III, p. 391, for the proclamation.

⁸ William Temple, *Works*, I, chapter 3; John de Witt, *Political Maxims of the State of Holland* (London, 1743), pp. 15-22. This book originally written by Pieter de la Court in 1662 was revised by de Witt, but in 1669 de la Court revised it again.

⁹ Thomas Mun, *England's Treasure by Forraign Trade*, pp. 182-86.

¹⁰ The phrases about inventiveness and cunning are quoted by David Ogg, *Europe in the Seventeenth Century* (London, 1925), p. 409.

¹¹ Violet Barbour, "Dutch and English Merchant Shipping in the Seventeenth Century," *The Economic History Review*, II, 261-290.

¹² *Ibid.*, II, 289.

universally and begrudgingly admired by Englishmen who never forgot that the less glamorous European trade was the most important of Dutch commercial activities. Although colonial products were more valuable in proportion to weight and bulk, their total worth still remained far below that of the European goods handled by the Dutch. Compare the two.¹³ Between 1597-1705 the imports of the Dutch East India Company aggregated 305,000,000 florins, and in no single year were they more than 11,000,000 florins. Yet in the year 1649 Dutch ships carried grain from Danzig, most of it to Holland, to the value of 14,000,000 florins. From 1623-1636 the West India Company's exports to the West Indies totaled 6,994,488 florins, yet in the nine years from 1641-1650 the Levant and Mediterranean trades lost 7,499,000 florins worth of goods to French pirates alone.

But what of this Dutch "cunning in traffic" so envied yet despised by Englishmen? A brief review of some phases of Dutch commercial and colonial history will explain much.

The Dutch rise dates largely from the beginning of their wars for independence and their subsequent projection into the Baltic, coastal, and overseas trades. With the union of Spain and Portugal the rebellious Dutch were excluded from their former source of supply for colonial products at Lisbon, so they decided to seek the Indies for themselves and beat the Spanish at their own game. After searching vainly for a northeast passage, and incidentally opening up trade with Russia, the Dutch ventured on the Cape of Good Hope route at the end of the sixteenth century. "About this time . . . came first into India the scourge of the Portuguese pride and covetousness. For, in the month of September, in the year 1595, news was brought to Goa, that the first Holland ships which durst cut those seas, had been in the port of Titancone, and were bound to the isle of Sunda, . . . From this arrival of the Dutch, the Portuguese justly date the ruin of their affairs in the East Indies."¹⁴

¹³ Otto Pringsheim, "Beiträge zur Wirtschaftsgeschichte der Vereinigten Niederlande im 17 und 18 Jahrhundert," *Staats- und Socialwissenschaftliche Forshungen*, No. 44 (Leipzig, 1890), pp. 15, 17, 18 for the statistics in this paragraph.

¹⁴ Adam Anderson, *An Historical and Chronological Deduction of the Origin of Commerce* (London, 1787), p. 189, quoting from an un-named Portuguese source.

Within fifty years the Dutch were masters of the East, having driven out the Spanish and Portuguese, monopolized the Spice Islands, and restricted the English to the narrow confines of the coast of India. The great Dutch East India Company was formed in 1601 by the amalgamation of several smaller companies, and ruinous competition was succeeded by a powerful and greedy monopoly, with sovereign rights in the Indies, and with a dominating influence in the councils at home. Able governors such as Pieter Both and Jan Koen, and the strong organization of the company gave the needed centralization of authority, and profits flowed home in a golden stream, with dividends of twenty-five per cent not unusual, and twelve and one-half per cent the common thing. Colonial products were vital factors in the European trade, for from the entrepôts in the Netherlands they were sent in several directions, bringing in return other goods, or specie.

The Dutch activity in the New World was far less remunerative. The West India Company, formed in 1621 with a monopoly in the Atlantic area, was imprudently managed, and meeting severe competition, it flourished and languished in turn. By 1654 the Dutch were expelled from Brazil by the Portuguese, and a decade later, Peter Stuyvesant's stomping on his wooden leg notwithstanding, New Netherland became New York.

Though not successful colonists, the Dutch were sharp traders and shrewd commercial diplomats. In saying that their government was managed by merchants, Temple was explaining why Dutch diplomats always gave much attention to economic interests. The friendly relations they maintained in the Mediterranean countries by means of treaties, skilled ambassadors, and mutually beneficial commercial operations, gave them a commanding position in that area. The story of how the Dutch, though later in the field, ousted the English from the Russian trade, is also revealing.¹⁵ Not until 1630 did the United Provinces establish diplomatic relations with the Czar, long after the English were well ensconced. Just nineteen years later the English Muscovy

¹⁵ Inna Lubimenko, "The Struggle of the Dutch with the English for the Russian Market in the Seventeenth Century," *Transactions of the Royal Historical Society* (1924), Fourth Series, VII.

Company lost its privileges, and the Dutch were in sole possession of the trade. Why? Being carriers, the Dutch could offer a wider variety of goods than the English, and at lower prices. They helped the Russians build up such industries as glass, paper, cloth, and metal. Further, the Czar preferred Dutch trade because it yielded an import revenue whereas the immunities granted to the English had allowed them to trade duty free. The Dutch capital investment in Russia was three times that of England. What happened in Russia was not an isolated phenomenon; rather it was one instance of how Dutch ingenuity built up a worldwide commerce.

The Low Countries had always been more distinctly urban than other European areas, and commerce thrives in densely populated regions. Sir William Temple ascribed the rapid ascent of the Dutch in part to the fact that population pressure forced them into trading activity because their agriculture and manufactures could not sustain them.¹⁶ One must distinguish, however, between the maritime commercial provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland, and the agriculture hinterland. Both regions maintained important manufacturing industries. But just as commercial considerations were paramount in all Dutch policy, so the commercial provinces held the foremost position in economic and political affairs.

The Dutch early created commercial institutions, the most famous and important being the Bank of Amsterdam which opened in 1609. The Bank was founded to supervise coinage and exchange, and only later did it enter into loan operations. Almost at once, however, the Bank became an integral part of Dutch economic activity; both Temple and Child emphasized the stability, convenience, and security of Dutch banking institutions as factors in their economic prosperity.¹⁷ Cooperating with the Bank was the Börse of Amsterdam, founded in 1561, in which all the commission business of the Netherlands was centered. Each of the three hundred brokers listed in 1612 handled a special commodity, which system resulted in the same efficiency as did the practice of the various cities, whereby each made itself the staple for some product, as Leyden for cloth,

or Amsterdam for spices. This staple policy was noticed by Temple.¹⁸

Great fortunes grew out of these concentrations of financial and commercial operations. The spectacular tulip mania of the 1630's could have occurred only in a country where much fluid wealth existed. The steadily falling interest rate which by the 1660's had sunk to three and one-half per cent reveals that large stocks of money were seeking investment. It was when "the Easie Rates that Money is to be found at interest" prevailed, as Lewis Roberts put it,¹⁹ that Sir Josiah Child wrote his *Discourse*, and it is therefore understandable why he should say that the low rate of interest was the "Causa Causans of all the other Causes of the Riches of that People."²⁰ Sir Josiah was of course confusing cause with effect. The rapid growth of the *rentier* class is of significance in explaining the shift of emphasis to financial operations toward the end of the century, indicating as it does the change from a venturesome trading spirit to the more conservative desire for a sure income from investments and loans.

The war with Spain won more than political independence for the Dutch. Freed from Spanish shackles they were at liberty to pursue their own economic desires, and with self-government, economic policy became state policy. Industry was one of the pillars of commerce, and while most of Dutch commerce was based on the carriage of foreign goods, the articles of domestic origin were by no means unimportant. The rise of Dutch industry was due in part to the immigration of skilled workers from regions where they were persecuted for religious and other reasons. Contemporary Englishmen noted this fact carefully. The once-envied Antwerp, as a consequence of troubles with the Duke of Alva, of sea beggars' raids and the blockade of the Scheldt, and of the Spanish fury of 1576, "had become a deserted harbour. . . . It was a decayed country town, . . . nothing remained but a little traffic with the impoverished interior."²¹ Much of the population and most of the wealth and glory

¹⁶ William Temple, *Works*, I, 192.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, I, 191; Josiah Child, *A New Discourse of Trade*, p. 229.

¹⁸ Josiah Child, *A New Discourse of Trade*, p. 8.

¹⁹ P. J. Blok, *History of the People of the Netherlands* (New York, 1900), III, 317-318.

¹⁶ William Temple, *Works*, I, 183, 184.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, I, 191; Josiah Child, *A New Discourse of Trade*, pp. 6-7.

of Antwerp moved to Amsterdam and other northern cities where shipping and manufacturing had been stimulated rather than destroyed by the conflicts that raged in the southern Netherlands. One hundred thirty-six families came to Middleburg from Antwerp in August, 1586.²²

This is only one side of the story, for Holland offered some positive attractions other than her growing prosperity. She followed a policy of toleration that both Child and Temple remarked upon as a distinct encouragement to business, and beyond that she conferred special privileges upon refugees. Middleburg lured the English wool staple from Antwerp in 1582 by promising exemption from the restraints imposed by the Spanish. If John de Witt lamented the repressive tendency apparent as the seventeenth century wore on, the fact remains that the immigrants were accorded much greater freedom in the United Provinces than almost anywhere else in Europe. The mercantilists of England saw patent advantages in the Dutch form of government, for merchants controlled the policies of the cities and provinces. Economic considerations would therefore triumph over religious zeal, and if a little casuistry was needed to soothe the few outraged consciences, it could easily be supplied while immigration remained an economic asset.

That the Dutch could successfully withstand English and French rivalry and restrictions, the barriers of Danish Sound tolls, Dunkirk pirates, the general insecurity of the seas, and the burdens of wars, was due in large part to the manner in which political affairs were conducted. To say that officials were corrupt, that provinces and cities were highly particularistic, that government was controlled by oligarchs, that decentralization and intra-Dutch competition was extreme, is to tell only one side of the story. The other is this. There was almost an identity of state and commercial policy. Business always found a friend and ally in government. The merchants were magistrates, the magistrates were either merchants or *rentiers*. No wonder that English mercantilists, to whom state policy was economic policy, should admire that identity which the Dutch seemed to have achieved. Temple showed how sympathetic and

understanding the Dutch government was toward merchants;²³ Josiah Child listed several specific examples of government encouragement to business;²⁴ de Witt noticed how the government extended favors to fishers, manufacturers, and merchants, while being careful not to levy taxes that might discourage business enterprise.²⁵ De Witt went further. While favoring government encouragement, he frowned upon governmental restraints, for

There is an absolute necessity that the commonalty be left in as great a natural liberty for seeking the welfare of their souls and bodies, and for the improvement of their estates as possible. For the inhabitants of the most plentiful country upon earth, by want only of that natural liberty, and finding themselves every way encumbered and perplexed, do really inhabit a bridewell or house of correction, fit for none but miserable condemned slaves, and consequently a hell upon earth.²⁶

This helps explain why religious toleration was founded on something more tangible than abstract philosophical principles. Toleration was also an economic asset. Calvinism was the established religion for several reasons, but all other religions except Catholicism were allowed. "Religion may possibly do more good in other places, but it does less hurt here."²⁷ The ruling classes, being interested in economic advancement, were quick to encourage immigration by the positive enticements of industrial and public privileges as well.

Economic and foreign policy went hand in hand. Hugo Grotius wrote in 1608 in answer to Portuguese claims of a monopoly in the East Indies, "By the law of nations the principle was introduced that the opportunity to engage in trade, of which no one can be deprived, should be free to all mankind."²⁸ This doctrine was also advanced in support of Dutch encroachment on the fisheries in English waters. It need hardly be said that freedom of commerce and Dutch interest were usually mutually compatible. When they were not, the Dutch

²³ William Temple, *Works*, I, Chapter 2.

²⁴ Josiah Child, *A New Discourse of Trade*, pp. 1-8.

²⁵ John de Witt, *Political Maxims of the State of Holland*, pp. 307 ff.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 416-417.

²⁷ William Temple, *Works*, I, 182.

²⁸ Hugo Grotius, *The Freedom of the Seas* (New York, 1916), p. 61.

did not hesitate to support interest rather than principle. That is why they condemned England for advancing the doctrine of *Mare clausum* in the North Sea at the same time that they were enforcing a strict monopoly in the East Indies, or why they kept commerce in New Netherland under control of the West India Company while they sailed boldly into the harbors of English and Spanish colonies. Economic enterprise was always assured of sympathy, understanding, and if need be material support from government. No wonder that many Englishmen who complained of Dutch mercantile rivalry would in the next breath admire the political institutions of the Netherlands as being well adapted for a people whose dominant interest was commerce.

III

But how much does all this explain? Except for geography, none of the advantages already mentioned need in the nature of things belong exclusively to the Dutch, and even their location was little more favorable than England's. Temple explained that Englishmen had all the advantages of the Dutch, or even more:

It is generally esteemed, that they have more shipping that belongs to them, than there does to all the rest of Europe. Yet they have no native commodities towards the building or rigging of the smallest vessel; their flax, hemp, pitch, wood and iron, coming all from abroad, as wool does for cloathing their men, or corn for feeding them. Nor do I know any thing properly of their own growth, that is considerable either for their own necessary use, or for traffic with their neighbors, besides butter, cheese, and earthen-wares. For havens, they have not any good upon their own coast . . . but Amsterdam . . . seems to be the most incommodius haven they have, being seated upon so shallow waters, that ordinary ships cannot come up to it without the advantage of tides; nor great ones without unlading . . . so that it easily appears, that it is not a haven that draws trade, but trade that fills a haven, and brings it in vogue. Nor has Holland grown rich by any native commodities, but by force of industry: by improvement and manufacture of all foreign growths; by being the general magazine of Europe, and furnishing all parts with whatever the market wants or invites; and

by their seamen being, as they have properly been called, the common carriers of the world.²⁹

In the last part of this statement Temple hinted that something more than material blessings helped establish Dutch prosperity. Thomas Mun spoke more directly:

The endeavours of the industrious Dutch do give sufficient testimony of this truth, *to our great shame, and no less perill*, if it have not a timely prevention: for, whilst we leave our wonted honourable exercises and studies, following our pleasures, and of late years besetting ourselves with pipe and pot, in a beastly manner, sucking smoak, and drinking healths, until death stares many in the face; the said Dutch have well-neer left this swinish vice, and taken up our wonted valour, which we have often so well performed both by Sea and Land, and particularly in their defence, although they are not now so thankful as to acknowledge the same.³⁰

But simply to forswear drinking is not enough, for the Dutchman probably drank as much as, and certainly he "sucked smoak" more than the Englishman, as Washington Irving abundantly testifies.

Perhaps nations are like individuals—some succeed better in economic enterprises than others. Why? Because some have more push than others. Whence cometh push? Thomas Mun said that penury and want make for wisdom and industry, and this statement borders on the truth that the Dutch had to exert themselves to get ahead, for they were not lavishly endowed with natural resources. That is the gist of Mun's complaint—with all their endowments Englishmen were not exerting themselves as they should, and the Dutch were getting ahead in the competition for trade. Lewis Roberts said of the Dutch—"As for their Judgement in *Traffick*, it is singular, by reason their want of many Necessaries both for Back and Belly, enforceth them to pry nearer into Commerce than other Nations that live in a more fruitful and fertile Country."³¹ What these men were really saying was that the Dutch were, as a people and as individuals,

²⁹ William Temple, *Works*, I, 182-183.

³⁰ Thomas Mun, *England's Treasure by Foreign Trade*, pp. 179-180.

³¹ Lewis Roberts, *The Merchants' Map of Commerce*, p. 229.

ambitious, industrious, energetic, driving, and they displayed these qualities to a far greater extent than did any other Europeans of the seventeenth century. Then the explanation of Dutch success lies not in their material advantages, for they had none, but in the temper and spirit of the Dutch people.

Temple described the Dutch people, and the virtues he accredited to them were as much economic as moral. Calvinist religious tenets may or may not enter into the analysis. Whether there is something about that religious faith that made its adherents successful business men, it is still true that the Catholic Florentine Alberti was the mental godfather of deistic Poor Richard. The virtues that make for economic prosperity do not seem to belong exclusively to any religious faith. But there is a whole literature on this subject.

As seen by Temple and other contemporaries, the Dutch were thrifty, according to Mr. Micawber's formula; they were honest because in the long run honesty is the best mercantile policy. A high quality of herring and true measures made for good business. They were sharp and exact, orderly, clean and efficient. Their shipbuilders had all their materials stored and distributed in the most convenient fashion. Dutch ships were clean because cleanliness kept sailors healthier and goods fresher. They were patient, willing to invest sums for long terms. They were moderate in their habits and charitable in their care for the unfortunate and disabled. They were ingenious, inventive, and adventurous in pushing out on the frontiers of economic advance. They encouraged the use of machinery because it was more profit-

able. They had earliest perfected the art of curing herring; the first wire mill in London was built by a Dutchman; and the first weavers' loom engine in England, in 1676, came from Holland. They sold their own superior butter at enhanced prices and imported cheaper Irish butter for domestic use. As a contrast with the English, when in 1633 a Dutchman built a wind-operated sawmill on the Thames by means of which a man and a boy could saw as much timber "as twenty men in the usual way, . . . this method was afterwards put down, lest our labouring people should want employment."³²

The Dutch in the seventeenth century were a young people, mentally resourceful, bursting with an energy that, due to their inherent capacities, displayed itself to the best advantage in the search for profits. They had heroic qualities, but they demonstrated them differently than, for example, the Elizabethans, and in a sense, more prosaically and sordidly. Temple's judgement is fair. It gives credit to the Dutch for their accomplishments, but it suggests that with all their triumphs their accomplishments were incomplete:

Holland is a country, where the earth is better than the air, and profit more in request than honour; where there is more sense than wit; more good nature than good humour; and more wealth than pleasure; where a man would chuse rather to travel than to live; shall find more things to observe than desire; and more persons to esteem than love.³³

³² Adam Anderson, *Origin of Commerce*, p. 354.
³³ William Temple, *Works*, I, 170.

A Teacher Gives a Visual-Aids Suggestion

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During the past few years educators have created a great deal of interest in the audio-visual-materials-of-instruction phase of education. Conformably, we teachers realize the need for more concrete aids of learning and

this need grows more and more real and apparent all the time. We are almost constantly seeking such aids and materials for use in our classes.

Here is a plan for this new method of learn-

ing and teaching which I am sure many will find helpful in enlarging their collections of learning materials. By using this plan I am sure that a much richer educational experience can be given the pupils whereby geography and all social studies subjects can be made almost as real as traveling to other lands. With such collections, we can easily supplement the subject matter and materials of our texts.

Some time ago I joined a couple of Correspondence Clubs (not the matrimonial type of club at all) with members in many countries of the world. There are fifty members from Holland in one of them. Of course, not all countries have that many members, for Egypt has merely one at present, but the membership will surely increase as time goes on. These two clubs have more than repaid the cost of the memberships, which is only a dollar a year each. Since joining these organizations I have collected a legion of visual materials for use in my geography and social studies classes which are really professional enrichment for a wide-awake teacher. Now that the war is over, the memberships in these clubs should increase rapidly, for it seems that teachers and people the world over at the present time are keenly interested in correspondence with American teachers.

Of course, it takes much time, effort and reciprocation to build up good collections of materials, but over a period of years I have

collected a multiplicity of materials to use in my classes to help make them more interesting and worthwhile. Some of these materials I might mention here. I have now over 4,000 colored view cards from sixty-seven different countries of the world and many of these views are not found in textbooks. They are very useful because we have an opaque projector in our school.

Among many articles received are native products. For instance, a teacher in India sent me samples of Indian grains like jwari from which the people of India make bread. A pen friend on the Gold Coast of Africa sent me an ostrich feather fan. I have received large picture books in color; good photograph books of pictures from Ireland and India; atlases and geography books, especially two fine atlases from Denmark and Holland. Art and drawings made by pupils have come to me. For example, just recently a friend in Holland sent me fifty bird pictures painted by boys and girls there. Among other articles I have received coins, stamps, flags, photographs (snapshots) and calendars with native scenes and customs. Quite valuable, too, has been the exchange of ideas and sometimes valuable information conveyed through the medium of correspondence.¹

¹ Anyone interested in further information about clubs of this kind may write to C. Wade Cudeback, 632 West 58th Street, Ashtabula, Ohio.

The Inventions of the Cotton Industry— Need or Ingenuity?

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Man's search for the better, the easier, the more efficient method of doing anything has played a starring role in the drama of history. To this search must be attributed thousands of discoveries which have made him more comfortable, have multiplied his wealth, have increased his leisure hours. From what source do they flow—man's need or man's ingenuity? In the cotton industry, changes in circumstances have engendered a need which aroused the talent and resourcefulness of inventors.

To understand fully the evolution of the cotton industry, it is necessary that you first understand the four stages—picking, carding, spinning, and weaving—involved in the production of cotton from its planting until it is marketed as manufactured goods.

In the cotton industry, circumstances first produced a need which led to the development of inventions. In order to appreciate the significance of inventions in America, we must look back to the English inventions which pre-

ceded them and are one of the circumstances which influence the development of American inventions. Strangely enough, inventions in the cotton industry did not begin, as most things do, at the beginning, but were found developing in the last stage first. John Kay in 1753 invented a device called a flying shuttle which was used in the last process, weaving, and which doubled the output, thereby increasing within a few years the demand for thread which could be woven. This need for thread was transmitted into a demand for greater efficiency in spinning which led to the invention of the spinning jenny by Hargreaves in 1763. The jenny spun from eight to 120 threads at once with as little labor as it formerly took to spin one. In 1769 Arkwright, following the lead of Hargreaves, evolved a machine which carried on the complete spinning process, and his machine Samuel Crompton later improved. All these improvements promoted greater efficiency in spinning which in turn increased the demand for carded cotton to spin.

A development of inventions in carding began as a result of this demand. Carding—the combing of cotton into strands for spinning—had formerly been done by hand brushing. Here again Hargreaves and Arkwright figure prominently, Hargreaves for putting the carding brushes on a pulley attached to the ceiling and Arkwright for combining several inventions into one machine which produced much more carded cotton for his rapid spinning machinery. When Cartwright in 1785 produced a power weaving loom, the cycle was completed: the cotton industry almost fully mechanized.

This mechanization has been a cumulative process. As inventions are produced in weaving, demand for spun thread increases. To meet this demand, inventions are produced for spinning which, in their turn, increase the demand for carded cotton. Raw cotton then becomes more necessary as carding machinery is evolved. Such a change in the industry had taken place in England between 1730 and 1785 that the whole cotton outlook had been revolutionized. Here was a source of wealth, and England had the lead on all other nations of the world. To safeguard her supremacy in the field, she legislated to prevent any artisans, machinery, or patents from leaving the coun-

try. Competition was automatically strangled, for no country using hand-labor could possibly compete with such machine products.

An enterprising artisan, disgusted with current conditions in England, escaped by various means to the United States. This was Samuel Slater, who brought to the colonies his knowledge of English inventions right from carding through weaving, and rebuilt the necessary machine from memory. He arrived in New England in 1790, became associated with the firm of Almy and Brown of Providence, Rhode Island, and introduced the factory system into America. Others came from England possessing the new technological knowledge. As the machinery began to produce manufactured goods, as it was copied, and as New England began to expand industrially, the demand for the raw cotton of the South rose proportionately. In time, American inventors outshone English inventors.

These two conditions—the early English inventions, and the importation of those inventions into the United States by Slater and others—were the circumstances which engendered need for raw cotton in quantity. This need stimulated the ingenuity of inventors in several directions.

The South was at this time developing into a great agricultural section. Cotton was needed desperately for manufacture. At this time cotton was hand-picked by slaves, taken to a central collection station, and cleaned. A slave spent all day removing the seeds, dirt, and other trash from only one pound of cotton. The entire crop of the South covered only a few hundred acres. The supply was far outdistanced by the demand, and the cost of the manufactured product was very high because of the expensive picking and cleaning process.

In 1792 Eli Whitney invented a very simple machine for cleaning cotton. A revolving saw-tooth wheel forced the cotton through a series of bars which were so small that seeds and other debris could not pass through—a simple thing, but it changed the history of the South. In 1791 the United States produced only 138,234 pounds of cotton. By 1793 it was producing 477,000 pounds, mute testimony to the efficiency of Whitney's gin. Once more circumstance, in this case, the demand for raw cotton

in quantity, generated a need which stimulated ingenuity.

The gin is probably Whitney's most renowned invention, but more valuable was the result of his invention. After the gin proved successful, Whitney and his partners set up gins in locations which they felt would attract the farmers in the locality. They gambled and lost. Since it was still an age of hand production, any artisan could copy the machine and build it himself, each adding his own delicate touch. If repairs were needed and the artisan who built the machine originally could not be found, a new gin most likely would have to be made. Whitney realized then that there was "no machinery for making machines." Again a need aroused his interest and started him devising ways to meet it.

His work of the next two years led to standardized interchangeable parts and eventually paved the way for mass production. There were two parts to his invention: a "jig" which was a pattern or guide for a tool, and a repetitive machine which turned out identical parts through repetition of the same motion. This was the operation of real genius, and it has been of tremendous value not only in the development of the cotton industry, but in all other branches of American manufacture as well. Possibly the cotton gin would have been produced by any putterer who saw the need for it when the economic conditions were ripe. The system of interchangeable parts was the work of a genius. No other system has ever replaced it. Its lasting effect on American manufacture is evident in our industrial supremacy at present.

Today, as though heeding the command that the first shall be last, inventors have reached to the final stage of cotton processing. The need for rapid cotton harvesting is spurring inventors to new efforts.

Cotton picking is still the most expensive process in the whole industry, since it is done by hand labor. Lack of labor, the need of picking a cotton field several times (since all the cotton will not ripen at the same time), the time involved, weather conditions—all are factors which affect the price of raw cotton. Lately, inventors have been working to produce a mechanical cotton picker. Three are in working stages now.

The Rust brothers have invented one which straddles the cotton rows and picks the ripe cotton by means of wet revolving spindles to which the cotton sticks. International Harvester has a similar machine, and also the Hanauer-Berry-Gamble Company. These machines have not as yet been perfected.

In one demonstration, however, a picking machine picked as much cotton in seven and a half hours as a man could pick in the whole harvesting season of eleven weeks. Its price was set at about \$1,000, which is prohibitive for most farmers. But a cooperative purchase of such a machine would result in so great a saving that the machine would pay for itself in a very short time. The use of a mechanical picker decreases the cost of a bale of cotton from \$10.00—\$20.00 to \$1.70—\$0.85, and does the work of forty to 100 hand pickers. If it is found practical, it will overturn the economy of the South. The immediate plight of the workers if this occurs is, of course, another phase of the topic which cannot be discussed here.

As the years pass by and changes in social and economic conditions produce circumstances which arouse a need for inventions, the genius of men with scientific minds is stimulated into action, seeking answers to the ever-increasing problems in life. Inventions in the cotton industry have followed this pattern and are the result of both need and ingenuity. The day is not far in the future when the complete processing of cotton will be mechanically done.

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Social Studies in Japan

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Japan's educational system closely resembles ours in organization. History, geography and economics are required subjects in the social studies field throughout the various stages of formal education. Beyond these two points of structure, particularly on the elementary and secondary level, and subject matter, similarities with the United States cease.

At age six boys and girls are required to attend the elementary school. Its first six years are called the junior or ordinary course, and the subsequent two years, totaling eight years of compulsory elementary school, is called the senior or higher course. Only since 1941 have the full eight years been mandatory according to educational regulations. During the war years no great effort was exerted to enforce much more than the previously required six years. Attendance beyond the free elementary school is limited largely to those who can afford the non-coeducational secondary school training.

Separation of boys and girls has necessitated the establishment of two secondary schools—the middle school for boys and the high school for girls. Their curricula are somewhat similar. However, conventional Oriental disregard for females has lessened course requirements for girls. Although physical training is required of both sexes, great emphasis has been placed on martial training in the middle school during recent years. Little difference exists between the curricula of the eight-year elementary school and the three- to five-year secondary school. As one of their educational pamphlets has summarized it: "The lessons

are more advanced in degree and fuller in detail."

Japan's contemporary system of education is patterned after certain features to be found in the United States, France and Germany. It was ordained by Emperor Meiji in 1890 by Imperial Rescript. The result of this fundamental order to educate all the people led to the establishment of the elementary school as the institution for providing basic education to the nation.

What then were some of the contributive educative factors which inflamed their perverted fanaticism and devotion to "his august Will?" Although a State-sponsored brand of Shintoism, the country's native cult, was co-ordinated with the nationalization of the schools some fifteen years before the Rescript, it was not until 1911 that this official religion with its martial inclinations became a school requirement and worship at the school shrine was mandatory of all children. The militarists recognized early the latency of education as a means to breed the docile, obedient State servants they desired. Only in recent years, when the war machine was well in gear, did the cabinet post of Education Minister emerge out of the category of a second-rate assignment. For years the Ministry was in the hands of professional educators allied with the militarists or was headed by a warmonger. Textbooks and teachers' manuals for exclusive use in the schools were prepared by the Ministry and distributed by it.

Perhaps the most potent educational influence for hammering the populace into a will-

ing servitude to the ultra-nationalistic and militaristic ideals was their "core program." Earlier in this paper it was stated that little difference exists between the elementary and secondary curricula except that "lessons . . . [were] more advanced" in the latter. The basic subject matter in the elementary school, which was in fact required in all schools, even through the collegiate level with little variation, was "The National Course." It was comprised of Japanese ethics, history and geography. As the student reached the secondary school, economics was added as a required course. Inclusion of this course in the curriculum of all schools resulted in a persistent emphasis on State propaganda adapted to each grade level. With such a nationalistic grip on the educative process, the militarists were able to satisfy their own martial desires to the detriment of the youth. From the earliest years school children were taught according to a State-prescribed form which ruled out any conception but a docility to serve the State.

What changes have taken place since the collapse of Japan's aggressive war machine? Little change has been effected in classroom teaching. There is still a technique reminiscent of our fast-disappearing, teacher-dominated, textbook-recitation method. Perhaps the only noticeable difference is that school children in Japan raise a clenched fist rather than a hand with extended fingers when they seek to answer a question. Considerable change has taken place in the subject matter content of all curricula. Most important was the SCAP¹ directive of late December, 1945, ordering the abolishment of the national course because it was recognized as the educative core around which fierce national pride had been developed. Teachers suspected of ultra-nationalism or militarism were ousted even earlier than December and replaced by liberal-

minded instructors. Ju-jitsu and other activities suggestive of the martial arts were deleted from the physical training program.

Further revisions in Japan's educational system included the complete exclusion of Shintoism, as an official cult, from the schools. The December directive also called for the collection of all textbooks and teachers' manuals of the national course. From the pulp of the destroyed books new texts prepared by the Ministry, under the direction of SCAP, will be available but will be purged of their pernicious materials. It was directed, also, that the new texts emphasize the basic social, economic and political truths of the world and relate them to the students' life and experience. New history books will give accurate version of how Japan's aggressive dream of a "Greater East Asia" led to her collapse. Unorthodox mythological origins of the empire, heretofore of great importance, have been removed from elementary textbooks. Some of this material has been included in history books of the upper school levels but has been simplified and stated to conform to known facts.

Some moves are afoot to introduce coeducation in the secondary level and to equalize the educational requirements for both sexes. But the greater emphasis has been on liberalization of entrance requirements for women on the collegiate level. Japan's Ministry of Education is again in the hands of trained educators, but they are men who are not identified with the ultra-nationalists of the war years.

While the changes of personnel and policy will require several years of practice for fair evaluative perspective, it seems clear that Japan's educational system is being guided in the right direction. As the school children of Japan today become educated under the new influence, the Japanese people will come to a realization ultimately that theirs is a better life than that under the militarists.

¹ Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

Unit Outline on Problems of International Organization and World Peace

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I. The League of Nations

A. Purpose

1. "To promote international cooperation."
2. "To achieve international peace and security."

B. Members

1. Original

- a. Signatories of the treaties of peace.
- b. Sympathetic neutrals which were invited to join as original members.

2. Elected

- a. "Fully self-governing" states, dominions or colonies.
- b. Approved by a two-thirds vote of the Assembly.

C. Machinery

1. Assembly

- a. Delegates from all member states.
- b. Each state one vote.
- c. Regular annual meetings.
- d. "To deal with any matter within the sphere of action of the League or affecting the peace of the world."

2. Council

- a. Originally nine members.
- b. Later enlarged to sixteen.
- c. Five great powers, United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan in a permanent capacity. (United States never joined)
- d. To meet as occasion required.
- e. Virtually the same authority as the Assembly.
- f. Burdened with economic problems.
- g. Unanimous vote required.

3. Permanent Secretariat

- a. Secretary-General.
- b. Staff of several hundred persons.
- c. Served as secretary to the Council and Assembly.
- d. Registered treaties.
- e. Carried on numerous cooperative fact-finding activities.

4. Associated Organizations

a. The World Court

1. In session all year at the Hague.
2. Fifteen jurists; nine year term.
3. Purpose to decide questions of fact in disputes referred to it.
4. Without power to enforce its decisions.

b. International Labor Office

D. Important Provisions of the League Covenant

1. Member nations guarantee each other's territory.
2. Disputes to be settled by peaceful means.
3. Armaments to be reduced.
4. Members waging war, in disregard of promises to submit disputes to arbitration or judicial settlement, to be punished by economic penalties and military measures.

E. What Success Did the League Attain?

1. In the field of drug addiction.
2. Health work.
3. Traffic in women and children.
4. Improved economic conditions.
5. In settling international political disputes.

F. Why Did the League Fail?

1. At no time did it include all the major powers.
 - a. United States refused to join.
 - b. Germany and Russia shut out during early years.
 - c. Germany and Japan resigned in the 1930's.
2. Had no means to enforce its decisions.
 - a. No police force.
 - b. Had to rely on action by separate governments.
3. Increasing Nationalism
4. "Power diplomacy" pervaded the Council and the Assembly.

5. Major powers remained heavily armed.
6. States acted independently of the League and independently of one another.
7. No attempt to revise the old treaty structure of Europe.
8. No effort to solve economic problems and rivalries.
9. No sincere will to peace on the part of the governments of the major powers.

G. Specific Failures

1. When Japan invaded Manchuria, 1931.
2. When Italy went into Ethiopia, 1935.
3. When Germany occupied the Rhineland, 1936.
4. When Italy and Germany interfered in the Spanish civil war.
5. When Germany invaded Austria, Czechoslovakia, etc.

II. Effect of World War II

- A. In emphasizing the underlying causes of armed conflict.
- B. In stressing the interdependence of nations.
- C. In revealing a world rapidly shrinking in terms of time and space.
- D. In evidencing the costly and horrible destruction of modern warfare; its blighting effect on civilization and democracy; its utter futility.
- E. In focusing attention on the necessity of preventing a third world war; of building a just and lasting peace.

III. Establishment of The United Nations Organization

- A. Preliminary steps leading to the organization.
 1. The Atlantic Charter, August, 1941.
 2. Declaration of the United Nations accepting the Atlantic Charter.
 3. The Moscow Declaration, October, 1943.
 4. Cairo Declaration, November 1943.
 5. Teheran Declaration.
 6. Hot Springs Conference on Food and Agriculture, May 1943.
 7. Bretton Woods Monetary Conference, July 1944.
 8. Dumbarton Oaks preliminary proposals for international organization (Aug. 21—Oct. 7, 1944)

9. International Civil Aviation Conference. (Nov.—Dec., 1944)
10. The Crimean Conference, February 1945.
11. Inter-American Conference on War and Peace. (Feb. 21—Mar. 9, 1945)
- B. The San Francisco Conference April 25, 1945.
 1. Countries sponsoring the meeting.
 2. Countries attending.
 3. Delegation of the United States.
 4. Outstanding personalities of other lands.
 5. Problems of the Conference.
 - a. Inefficiency of organization—problem of chairmanship.
 - b. Technical difficulties — especially language.
 - c. Disagreements among the big nations.
 - d. Small powers at odds with large powers.
 - e. Steering Committee; smaller executive committees.
 - f. Four principal commissions worked out details of the Charter.

C. The Charter

1. Signed by fifty-one nations in June 1945.
2. Later approved by signing governments.
3. Purposes—security, justice, welfare, human rights.
4. Obligations of members.
5. Machinery established.
 - a. General Assembly.
 - (1) Made up of all nations large and small. Each may have five members but only one vote.
 - (2) Important decisions require two-thirds majority; simple majority decides questions of lesser importance.
 - (3) Regular annual sessions.
 - (4) Power to discuss and recommend.
 - (5) Controls budget of U. N.
 - (6) Determines dues of member states.
 - (7) Elects Secretary-General, non-permanent members of Security

Council; Economic and Social Council; part of members of Trustee Council; helps elect judges of International Court.

b. Security Council

- (1) Composition
 - (a) Five permanent members—U. S., Great Britain, Russia, China, France.
 - (b) Six non-permanent members—at present Brazil, Mexico, Egypt, Poland, Netherlands, Australia.
- (2) Duties
 - (a) "To see that any disputes between nations are settled peacefully."
 - (b) "If peaceful settlement fails, to prevent or stop any act of aggression."
 - (3) Veto power of the Big Five.

c. Economic and Social Council

- (1) Composition
 - (a) Eighteen members
 - (b) Elected for three years by Assembly.
- (2) Sets up specialized agencies.
 - (a) Food and Agricultural Organization.
 - (b) UNRRA.
 - (c) International Bank.
 - (d) International Monetary Fund.
 - (e) Civil Aviation Organization.
 - (f) Educational and Cultural Organization.

d. Trusteeship Council

- (1) Membership
 - (a) Equally divided between nations which hold trusteeships and those which do not.
 - (b) All of Big Five must be represented whether hold trusteeships or not.
 - (c) Appointed by Assembly
- (2) Oversees the administration of backward areas under its administration.

e. International Court of Justice.

- (1) All the United Nations are automatically members.
- (2) Other nations may join.

(3) Eleven judges elected by General Assembly and Security Council.

(4) Appeals may be taken to the Security Council.

f. Secretariat.

- (1) Headed by Secretary-General, appointed by Assembly on recommendation of Security Council.
 - (a) Salary \$20,000; official hospitality \$15,000.
 - (b) House and staff without charge.
 - (c) Total \$100,000 per year, tax free.

g. Military Staff Committee

- (1) Made up of chiefs of staff of permanent members of the Security Council.
- (2) Duties
 - (a) Advises Security Council on size of army, navy, and air force needed to maintain international peace.
 - (b) Makes recommendations about regulations of armaments.
 - (c) If military action is necessary, it takes over strategic direction of armed forces which the Council has at its disposal.

6. Compared with the League Covenant.

- a. Unanimous vote not required in any of the United Nations bodies; veto power of Big Five.
- b. International Court a part of U. N. organization rather than a separate body.
- c. Non-members to be bound by U. N. principles.
- d. Security Council no job but security.
- e. Separate Economic and Social Council.
- f. More definite provision for quick use of armed forces if necessary to prevent aggression.
- g. A more human document.

D. The Preparatory Commission.

1. Composition.
2. Problems that confronted it.
 - a. Work out details and make plans to set up actual organization.
 - b. Select site for permanent home for U. N.

- c. Transfer League of Nations functions and assets to U. N.
- d. Arrange for first sessions of General Assembly, Security Council etc.; set up U. N. Secretariat and convene International Court.

E. First Meeting of the General Assembly.

1. Opened in London, January 10, 1946.
2. Delegates from the United States.
3. Established U. N.'s working machinery.
4. Problems beyond those of routine organizational work.
 - a. Control of atomic energy.
 - b. Conflict between Russia and Iran.
 - c. Dispute between Russia and Turkey over the Dardanelles.
 - d. The Spanish issue—what should be done about General Franco and his government.
 - e. Trusteeship problem—how dependent areas should be governed and controlled.
 - f. British troops in Greece and Java.
 - g. Demand for the withdrawal of British and French troops from Syria and Lebanon.

F. First Session of the Security Council

1. Opened March 25, 1946.
2. Hunter College, New York City.
3. Problems.
 - a. What kind of a world police should be set up? How large should it be? What type of force should each nation contribute to the pool?
 - b. Iran vs. Russia.
 - c. Poland's charges against the Franco government in Spain etc.
4. Resignation of Stettinius.

G. World Bank and International Monetary Fund Are Set Up.

1. Both will have headquarters in the United States.
2. Purposes and methods of operation.

H. Meeting of Big Four Foreign Ministers.

1. Opened in Paris, April 23, 1946.
2. Byrnes of United States; Molotov of Russia; Bevin of Great Britain; Bidault of France.

- 3. Problem of peace treaties.
 - a. What should be done with the Italian empire?
 - b. How about the Dodecanese Islands?
 - c. Problems of drawing the Yugoslav-Italian frontier—importance of Trieste.
 - d. Problem of Italian reparations.
 - e. How much influence shall Russia have over the Balkans? Shall free trade on the Danube be guaranteed?
 - f. How about the Romanian-Hungarian border?
 - g. What about Bulgarian reparations?
 - h. Shall the Ruhr and the Rhineland be detached from Germany?
- 4. Breakdown of the Conference.

IV. Can the U. N. Achieve Peace in an Atomic Era or Should We Proceed Immediately to Establish a World Government?

- A. Charter of United Nations has not been nullified by the atomic bomb.
- B. Adjustment of Charter to era of atomic energy is not only possible but easy.
- C. Atomic bomb makes the Charter real—nations conscious of the danger to all the world in a future war.
- D. So long as the Big Five retain the right of veto, the U. N. will be unable to stop a future aggressor.
- E. In a world government each nation would surrender part of its sovereignty.
- F. A world government would have absolute authority over all armaments.
- G. A world government would have power to stop a would-be aggressor nation.
- H. The U. N. can be constantly strengthened and improved.
- I. The greatest obstacle to peace.
 1. Is not the United Nations Organization.
 2. But it is in the suspicion, distrust and fear the big powers have of one another.

V. What can Youth do to see that International Cooperation Succeeds and that a Just and Lasting Peace is Established?

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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TEACHING INTERRACIAL UNDERSTANDING

One of the few normal conditions in the United States which seems never to be radically altered by world wars is racial antagonism. War can change our concepts of government, overturn our economic system and reverse traditional foreign policies, but the problem of how whites and Negroes shall treat each other goes on, unaffected and unsolved. The kinship of wartime patriotism, which brought together in common endeavors many social elements ordinarily disparate, had practically no effect on the racial question. The FEPC gained few converts among those to whom race is important, and it was discarded at the first opportunity. Meanwhile the chronology of prejudice, discrimination and injustice was as complete as ever.

The end of a year and more of peace has shown clearly that nothing has changed. Negroes are lynched, Bilbos and Talmadges are heard in the land, and fiery crosses burn on the hilltops. The old tensions, the same prejudices, and the same antagonisms exist. The more vindictive members of both races seize every available opportunity to vent their feeling against the other, in outright violence or in a hundred petty meannesses. As usual the South offers the most glaring examples, but the North still has its share. The problem is still with us, just as it always was.

This is disheartening to the social studies teacher who must go on, year after year, trying to teach democratic ideals that seem to have little relation to reality. It is true that there are many favored schools and communities where for one reason or another a really high degree of democracy exists. But in most areas where there are members of both races, hostility is either apparent or just beneath the surface. Here the teacher's task is hardest; to ignore the problem is dishonest, and to attack it is usually futile and often dangerous. There are often racial issues within the school—such things as the use of swimming pools,

mixed dancing, participation in class outings, or election of class or school officers. The willing and eager teacher may seize upon these as excellent opportunities to teach applied democracy, only to be frustrated and rebuffed by parental indignation.

One reason for the inadequacy of much of our interracial studies in the classroom is the difficulty of touching some of the real roots of the question. The sex angle, for instance, lies at the bottom of a great deal of racial feeling. The fear of "race pollution" is the stock retort of the professional racist to every attempt to get justice for the Negro, although there is every evidence that the danger, if there is any, is of the whites' own making. Maxwell Stewart in his Public Affairs Pamphlet, *The Negro in America*, has shown that the social and sex aspect is of far greater concern to the whites than to the Negroes; the latter are more concerned with economic and political discrimination.

Margaret Halsey's recent book, *Color Blind: A White Woman Looks at the Negro*, gives an excellent and frank analysis of the sex question in race and of that other underlying factor, the desire of many whites to keep the Negro as a source of cheap labor. Miss Halsey minces no words. If our social studies teachers could be equally frank in discussing the shabby and hypocritical bases of most racial feeling, there might be more hope for a solution of the problem through education. Such candor is impossible, of course, and the schools must go on dealing gingerly with the whole question.

TEACHERS IN THE SUMMER

A little article by Dorothy De Zouche in *The Clearing House* for September must have struck a responsive chord in the minds of many of its readers. It was a protest against summer schools. It bewailed the fact that so many school systems consider frequent attendance at summer school as the most valuable way for a teacher to spend a vacation. Miss De Zouche feels that, aside from the questionable value

of many summer school courses, the average teacher needs to get away for a while from the whole routine of school life—the professional jargon, the academic mind, the devotion to learned books, and the constant pressure of tests, assignments, and grades.

There can be little pretense that it is a rest, for how much rest can be obtained by spending several hours of each summer day in hot and stuffy classrooms and libraries, or in commuting daily to a huge metropolitan college, or in inhabiting a dormitory cell while summer traffic roars outside? There must be many teachers who will agree with Miss De Zouche that their value as teachers would be improved to a greater degree if their summers were spent in learning about the world at first hand, in doing work far removed from the ivory tower.

The teacher who spends his summers working on the railroad, or bicycling across country, or doing any one of a thousand things which will help him learn what other people are like is apt to be a more human and understanding individual in the classroom next fall. And he will have the confidence and self-respect that comes from finding that he is capable of doing a lot of other things profitably besides teaching. He will know that that old saying: "Those who can't, teach," doesn't apply to him, at least.

TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS

Autumn is the time of year when teachers everywhere are invited, urged—and sometimes commanded—to join professional organizations. There are indeed many associations to join. In New Jersey, for instance, some teachers may find themselves asked to become members of seven different groups—associations of department heads, secondary teachers, and subject field teachers, as well as national, state, county, and local general organizations. In other states it is probably much the same. The total amount to be laid out in dues may run over ten dollars annually—not an inconsiderable sum in a teacher's budget. Aside from a collection of membership cards, the returns are largely intangible. Many teachers consider the money well spent and need no urging to join. Others join the most important groups as a gesture to professional propriety and look upon the dues as a sort of necessary tax that attends their job. Still others regard the whole matter of teachers' organizations with disdain,

pronounce them worthless and join none of them.

What is the value, if any, of teachers' organizations? In attempting to answer this question, it must be admitted at the outset that professional associations, like schools of education, do often indulge in that peculiar brand of high-flown nonsense where a few simple and well-known truths about education are expanded, embroidered and inflated to the point that it takes several hours of "gobbledy-gook" to express ideas which could be driven home in good English in five minutes. Many sensible and practical teachers have no doubt been soured on educational conferences for life by attending a few that featured speakers of this sort who poured out inspirational drivel or tried to conceal a paucity of worthwhile thought by a spate of ethereal philosophy. Or they may have attended a discussion group meeting in the hope of hearing a vital exchange of experiences and new ideas, only to see the time monopolized by a few word-mongers intent on hair-splitting and personal advertisement.

It must be admitted that these things do happen, and that we often go to a professional meeting with our fingers crossed. Yet it must be realized that these shortcomings are not inherent in teachers' organizations as such, but are merely the fault of some of those whom we permit to lead them. We make the same complaint of our governmental officers. Too many of them are long on words and short on results, but we cannot from that fact deny the necessity of government. Professional associations, like political organizations, are essential; we cannot abandon them because they frequently bore us.

There are several valid answers to the sceptical teacher's query: "What do teachers' associations do that's worthwhile?" Perhaps it is well to have them in mind at this time of year. In the first place, professional organizations help teachers. That is, the general associations of teachers can and have advanced the economic and social status of teachers everywhere. Some teachers will look at the relatively low wage scale and deny that assertion, but it remains true nevertheless. Low as teachers' incomes may be today, the situation is improved over what it was thirty years ago. In

addition teachers have acquired in many states such benefits as tenure, pensions, sick leave and salary schedules. No one with even a rudimentary knowledge of political processes believes that these gains have come about without the application of pressure. The NEA and particularly the more active state teachers' associations have been very largely responsible for all teacher welfare legislation. Legislators are conditioned to listen carefully to any organized group of voters. The mere fact that several thousand teachers of a state form an association and pay dues to it guarantees them political consideration.

A second value in teachers' organizations is that they provide a means whereby the teachers themselves may set the standards for their profession, and promote the educational practices and policies which they believe should be followed in the schools. Without the leadership and organized opinion of teachers in these matters, educational policy would be left to the whim of laymen. Such problems as curriculum content, teacher training, and material standards would become the battleground of taxpayers' associations, patriotic groups, labor unions, chambers of commerce, and other organizations with special views on education. Only by making its own beliefs and demands known through its organized sources can the educational profession lead the way.

Teachers' organizations are valuable for the contacts which they offer. Except for professional meetings, the average teacher has little opportunity to meet other teachers outside of his own school. Like medicine and the ministry, teaching is a profession of service. Its practitioners are subject to occasional doubts, discouragement, and lack of faith in their results. They need from time to time to be reminded that they are part of a large and important group, each member of which suffers these same doubts; realization of their common interests and accomplishments strengthens the faith of all. Professional associations are a unifying force that give the individual teacher the sense of purpose and direction that he needs.

EDUCATIONAL CONVENTIONS

In the previous item we made some comments about the fact that educational conventions are sometimes less than stimulating.

One can hardly refrain from calling attention in this connection to Bertrand Hayward's article in *The Clearing House* for September. Mr. Hayward devoted several amusing pages to a blistering castigation of educational conventions as they are frequently conducted.

After some remarks on the formality of the program, the lack of teacher participation, and the nature of the food customarily served at convention dinners, Mr. Hayward described a few types of speakers who are usually found somewhere in the spotlight. There is the public official or businessman who sees no good in education as it is; there is the educational idealist who exhorts us to higher things like a revivalist; and there is the expert on foreign affairs with his handpicked solutions to the world's problems. Like Mr. Hayward, we have all heard them but could do nothing about them. Perhaps the best defense is that which made a joke of the teachers' institute in a certain county some years ago. Quite without malice, every single one of the 800 women teachers who attended brought her knitting. The imperturbable clicking of all those needles was by far the most effective feature of the meeting. Mr. Hayward has, of course, exaggerated the case; but he does a service in emphasizing the point that the real value of conventions, educational or otherwise, comes not from the formal speeches but from the open meetings, discussion groups and informal talks where ideas are exchanged and acquaintances made.

Those responsible for institutes and conventions would do well to remember that a free discussion among fifty persons interested in a particular problem will do those people far more good than sitting with a thousand others to listen to the words of a professional lecturer. Anything he can say can be matched in a hundred books and periodicals at home; but the values gained by participation in a lively and intimate group meeting cannot be duplicated anywhere else.

EDUCATION ABROAD

The war and the problems of occupation have generated a great deal of interest in educational methods abroad. It has become clear that the germs of war lie in the classroom and that one of the most critical tasks of the military occupation forces in Germany and elsewhere is

the reorganization of the schools along democratic lines. Current interest in foreign education is reflected in the considerable number of magazine articles which are dealing with one phase or another of the subject.

The September issue of *Education Digest*, for example, included three articles from as many other periodicals. One by William F. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, discussed the necessity of changing the lockstep system of education that characterized the German lower schools. He believes that this can be done only by the Germans themselves, and that first we must see to it that a new type of German government, dedicated to liberal ideas, is permitted to reach maturity without interference from reactionary forces.

A second digested article was that by Alfred Apsler from the *School Review*. Apsler is a former Austrian teacher now teaching in an Oregon high school, and his comparisons of the American secondary school and the Austrian *Gymnasium* are most interesting. Especially significant is his discovery that American school teachers are held in lower public esteem than their European counterparts, but that, while "the American teacher does not sit in the front row of social life, he is richly compensated by being a free person—free to teach his ideas and to live his life."

NOTES

The American Library Association in collaboration with Warner Brothers Pictures recently issued a selected booklist on the subject of motion pictures. Attractively printed, it provides information about some sixty books that comprise the best references about the movies. The bibliography is divided into sections dealing with the history of motion pictures, outstanding cinema personalities, the technical side of picture-making, motion pictures as an art and a social force, and vocational opportunities in the industry. Each item in the list is briefly described, and the selections seem to have been made with care and good judgment.

Department of State Publication 2609, recently issued, is a list of the publications of the State Department from October 1, 1929, to July 1, 1946, which are on sale by the Superintendent of Documents. For libraries or indi-

viduals wishing original source material on current problems, this list is most useful. It includes reports of the American delegations to all international conferences, speeches on our foreign policy delivered by members of the State Department, executive agreements with other nations, and many other important matters of record concerning foreign relations, obtainable only from this source.

One of the most interesting types of material for stimulating discussion in current problems classes is the public opinion poll. Probably the best reports on these polls are those published several times a year by the National Opinion Research Center of the University of Denver. The NORC reports analyze very thoroughly public reactions on a single general topic, treating it in a variety of phases and giving not only the statistical findings on each question, but sample quotations of the different points-of-view. This method of treatment makes the report most usable in class, since students can consider and discuss the reasons as well as the results discovered. Another valuable feature is the comparisons that are made with previous polls on the same subject conducted by NORC or other surveys. One of the most recent NORC Reports is No. 32: "Japan and the Post-War World."

The July, 1946, Yearbook of the *Journal of Negro Education* is devoted to the general topic, "The Problem of Education in Dependent Territories." It is a most impressive collection of articles, totalling over 300 pages, and covering nearly every phase of the subject. Besides articles on several general aspects of education as a function of imperialism, there are a dozen reports on educational conditions in as many different dependent areas. These include the European possessions in Asia and Africa, the Pacific islands, the West Indies, and our own territories.

It is interesting to read a report that the Kiwanis Club of Chippewa Falls, Wis., has offered a scholarship to the member of the local graduating class most likely to succeed in teaching. Such a practical gesture from a civic and business group is the best possible indication that the importance of recruiting new teachers is beginning to be seriously realized outside of the schools.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

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Guide to Public Affairs Organizations with Notes on Public Affairs Informational Materials. By Charles R. Read and Samuel Marble. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1946. Pp. 129. Paper cover. \$2.00.

Social studies teachers are continually trying to lead their students to consider social and economic problems in the light of the general welfare. On every hand they encounter influences of group interests using pressures that disregard the public good. Persons directing courses in problems and current events and forum groups who are on the lookout for non-propaganda and unbiased materials should find this guide helpful.

The purpose of the book is to describe more than 400 organizations working in major areas that are aiming to improve society. Among the eighteen areas listed in the contents are International Affairs and World Order, Relief and Reconstruction, Peace, Labor and Industrial Relations, Minorities, Social Welfare and Youth Work, Public Health, Education, Cooperation, and Conservation. Only those organizations which have national or international activities or membership are included.

For each organization the address is given. The activities and services are listed as well as the publications and subscription price.

Families in Trouble. By Earl L. Koos. New York: King's Crown Press, 1946. Pp 134. \$2.25.

This is a book that resulted from a study of scores of families living in one block of a New York City tenement district. "In this study the effort has been to concentrate upon all of the troubles experienced by the family over a period of time. This approach was chosen because it appeared to offer the best opportunity for studying the family's experiences in toto."

Dr. Koos won the confidence of parents and children and was thus able to secure human interest stories of the internal activities of these families. Interesting quotations and ex-

cerpts from interviews lend special interest to the book.

The author has utilized a research technique as yet not very highly developed. He devotes the entire first chapter to a detailed explanation of the method and technique used. This orients the reader to the entire study. The book is well written and holds the reader's attention from beginning to end. It should be read and carefully studied by every student of social problems and social work. From an adverse point of view, there is no statistical analysis of data. The sample is rather small. No bibliography is included. In spite of these limitations, the book is an excellent piece of work. Dr. Lynd's preface also adds to its value.

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Thomas Jefferson. By Frank and Cortelle Hutchins. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1946. Pp. 279. \$2.50.

The foreword of this biography for young people says: "The purpose of this book is to present the life of Thomas Jefferson in popular form, but with strict accuracy."

It should be called a political biography. Although the span from boyhood days to retirement is covered, it is essentially a narrative of the state and national history with which Jefferson was associated. The facts are reliable and are well organized. It has merits as a book for supplementary reading in a senior high school history class.

One wonders, though, whether this type of biography really meets the needs of young readers. The possibilities of a biography of the brilliant, many-sided Jefferson with such a remarkable versatility of interests and such a wide range of experiences seem to be such as would create a character of almost limitless inspiration and appeal.

This biography mentions that Jefferson read several hours daily and collected a large library. Why not name some of the books and

suggest what ideas he absorbed? He was a champion of the people and of democracy. But what were the issues of the day and the cleavages of classes? We are told that Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence in a house on High Street, Philadelphia. But there is little about his theories of government and the reasons for writing the document. He was interested in his lands but there is no mention of his collection of seeds from all over the world or of his pioneering in scientific agriculture.

The selection of material for a short young people's biography of a subject so rich in material is difficult. It seems though that the authors might have done more to catch the significance of Jefferson's liberal views, his insatiable curiosity, and his inventive genius.

Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. 407. \$5.00.

For the first time in the seventy-two years of its existence the National Conference of Social Work did not meet last year. The Office of Defense Transportation asked for its cancellation in 1945. However an original plan was followed to carry on the program of the Conference. A selected group of papers already prepared for the many meetings scheduled at this national gathering were immediately mimeographed and made available to local communities where 139 one-day meetings were held to discuss these contributions to social work thought. And the editorial committee went forward to select carefully and edit the papers in the *Proceedings*. So that the only thing lacking in the 1945 National Conference was the holding of one great week of conferences itself.

The presidential address is here. It is a wise one written by revered Ellen C. Potter, on "The Year of Decision for Social Work." She really gives a brief succinct history of social work together with a clear vision of the tasks ahead for the post-war world (in which we now find ourselves). The first section of the proceedings would have been the major addresses at the large general meetings of this National Conference built round the theme "Social Work Faces Broad Issues." Other sections of the book contain papers on "Social Work Serves the Returning Veteran," "Next Steps in the

Public Social Services," "Social Work Considers Problems of Organization," "Labor Participates in Social Work," "Social Work Reconsiders Some Questions of Method," "Social Work Serves Children," "Social Work Looks at the Nation's Health," and "Social Work Thinks Through Its Responsibility for Social Action."

The National Conference is essentially an open forum in which all shades of opinion may be expressed and they are. One often wonders how much one would get from a conference if one would not attend. Well, here is an answer. The only things lacking are a huge daily scheduled program which usually runs over a hundred pages, tramping from meeting place to meeting place, lunching and dining and breakfasting, and listening to some speakers who do not hold one's attention. These features in conference attendance are happily absent. One does miss the great room filled with its fascinating exhibits, the pleasant renewal of acquaintances and the making of new ones, and the advantages of face to face contacts. When this Conference is held there are always quite a few thousand delegates present and it is one of the biggest conferences held annually in America. The teacher and student concerned with and interested in social work and trends in it will find much of real value in the 1945 *Proceedings*. The list of authors present is veritably a Who's Who in the field. An old Indian proverb is quoted which says: "Never judge a man until you have walked in his moccasins two weeks." If one wants to know the mind of social work in our nation today here is a book not to be neglected. This reviewer who has attended National Conferences of Social Work in Minneapolis, Philadelphia, Atlantic City, Cleveland and Buffalo found "going" to the 1945 gathering a unique, inexpensive, thoroughly satisfying experience.

RICHMOND P. MILLER

Religious Society of Friends
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Great Pacific Victory; From the Solomons to Tokyo. By Gilbert Cant. New York: The John Day Company, 1946. Pp. 422. \$3.50.

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PHILADELPHIA 30, PA.

Fleet Against Japan. By Fletcher Pratt. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946. Pp. 263. \$3.00

No war in the world's history has ever been as thoroughly reported and discussed as was World War II. As the war progressed the American people were almost deluged with books, pamphlets, and magazine articles. Numerous reporters and one-time reporters participated in the actions, rode the sea-ways on all types of ships, patrolled with submarines and flew in bombers. The result was some brilliant reportorial writing, writing which will remain interesting and graphic for years to come.

Of all those who wrote of the war in the Pacific, however, two men are head and shoulders above the crowd—Gilbert Cant and Fletcher Pratt. Both men have a deep background of knowledge of naval strategy and history, both have demonstrated a high degree of objectivity, and both have written with the same color and skill which marked the writing of the reporters. The result has been a half dozen books which should prove of as much value to the historian writing a century from now as they are of interest to readers in 1946. The present volumes are among the best of their writings, and deserve places of honor in high school and college libraries.

Mr. Cant surveys the Pacific war from the fall of Guadalcanal to the final capitulation. The Marshalls and Solomons, Tarawa and Iwo Jima, Okinawa and the Aleutians—we have almost forgotten some of them already. Mr. Cant has some very forthright opinions about such matters as the degree of responsibility for Japan's surrender which the atomic bomb can claim, the censorship of the Navy officials, and the strategic importance of the Okinawa campaign. He expresses these opinions in no uncertain terms, and readers will enjoy his frankness. This is not definitive history—that may wait for fifty years to be written; perhaps it will never be written, for the scale of operations was so tremendous and the interplay of forces so great—but it is excellent contemporary appraisal. The book has a number of excellent charts and diagrams and is, throughout, highly readable and entertaining.

Mr. Pratt has previously written about the defensive phase of the Pacific campaigns which

ended in 1944, in his *The Navy's War*. In this most recent volume he surveys the offensive phase which gradually swung into high gear and finally crushed the Japanese forces with the greatest display of naval might which the world has ever seen. Strategy and tactics are discussed in a readable manner, personalities—such as Nimitz and Callaghan—are vividly presented, and a profusion of incidents become fastened in the reader's mind. The three offensive actions which the author considers most vital are discussed in detail. These are the battle for the Aleutians, the Marianas' campaign, and the engagements at Leyte. It is well illustrated with maps and diagrams, and with photographs of the action at Leyte Gulf.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN.

New York City

Occupational Life: A Vocational Guidebook.

By Verl A. Teeter. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Second Edition. Pp. 175. 96 cents.

Verl A. Teeter has revised the earlier edition of *Occupational Life* in keeping with modern trends in vocational study. While the book is permeated with guidance materials it integrates the economics civics which is so vital to the development of intelligent American citizenship. Boys and girls who use this workbook are not expected to make lasting vocational choices but when they do make a choice they will have gone through a procedure and have had a look at the occupational world. Their choices will be made, perhaps, with a little more conviction and understanding.

For the teacher this workbook is but a springboard for excellent community and individual study in occupational relationships. With attention directed toward student development guidance personnel will be interested in the use of this material. There are excellent bibliographical suggestions for both teacher and pupil. *Occupational Life* is among the better, if not the best, vocational workbooks.

ELMER A. LISSFELT

Abington Township Schools
Abington, Pennsylvania

Shall I Get a Divorce—and How? By John H. Mariano. New York: Council on Marriage Relations, 1946. Pp. x,141. \$2.00.

In this day of social disorganization John H.

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(b) A Treasure Hunt.
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- G45. The Principal Countries of Europe (1938).
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- G47. Commodities With New World Place Names.
- G48. Europe and the Mediterranean—Some Whys.
- G49. Some European City-Groups and Their Surroundings.
- G50. Some European Straits, Canals and the Waters They Join.
- G51. North America—Yes or No?
- G52. Whys in Asia.
- G53. Asia—Is It True?
- G54. Asiatic Nuts to Crack.
- G55. Africa—Is It True?
- G56. The Raw Material Continent.
- G57. Some Place Names in the Three "A" Continents—Asia, Australia and Africa.
- G58. Australia and New Zealand—Is It True?
- G59. A Voyage of Discovery: Finding Some of the World's Seas.
- G60. Where the Waters Narrow.
- G61. Names of Interesting Places and Features of the World (Part 1).
- G62. Names of Interesting Places and Features of the World (Part 2).
- G63. Some Questions on the Ocean.

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Mariano's guide to those in marital difficulties offers counsel and caution. The treatment of the subject of divorce is unique in its plan for it allows no stock and trade answers for the individual question. It does bring out the common errors of husbands and wives which tend to make for family breakdown. The author brings to mind the old adage that mankind need keep both eyes open before marriage and half open after the vows are taken.

Shall I Get a Divorce—and How? is not a facetious title but is written seriously for counselors, social workers and those who need information before they go to court. It offers a brief of the factors which have contributed to family maladjustments and suggests what might be done. The tables and charts on grounds for divorce, annulment, resident and jurisdictional requirements, examinations, marriage licenses and interlocutory decrees indicate the scope of the book.

The style of the book and its make-up provides easy reading. However, I feel that each chapter needed fuller explanation. Perhaps the author has tried to catch the lay reader, for the book is an index of social problems which threaten the institution of the home. A timely treatise, but it needs elaboration.

ELMER A. LISSFELT

Abington Township Schools
Abington, Pennsylvania

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Westward the Course. By Hildegard Hawthorne. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1946. Pp. 280. \$2.50.

A young people's story of the Lewis and Clark Expedition.

Poetopoeia: The Romance of Euripides. By George Caroussis. New York: The William-Frederick Press, 1946. Pp. 322. \$3.50.

The author has made a manuscript from the known works of Euripides plus his own imaginative writings in the style of Euripides.

Iron Out of Calvary. By Walter Phelps Hall. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1946. Pp. 389. \$3.00.

An interpretative history of the Second World War.

Government and Politics in the United States.

By Harold Zink. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. viii, 1006. \$4.50.

A basic college text for the teaching of American government.

Our Enemy, the State. By Albert Jay Nock. Caldwell, Idaho: The Caxton Printers, 1946. Pp. 209. \$2.50.

Based on the thesis that an increase of State power results in a corresponding decrease of social power.

Educational Opportunities for Veterans. By Francis J. Brown. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1946. Pp. 142. Paper Cover. \$2.00.

Prepared for those who counsel returning veterans on their education and training.

Youth in Trouble: Studies in Delinquency and Despair. By Austin L. Porterfield and C. Stanley Clifton. Fort Worth, Texas: The Leo Potishman Foundation, 1946. Pp. 135. \$1.50.

Done by professors of sociology, the material based on research is presented in a style quite readable.

Sequoya. By Catherine Cate Coblenz. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1946. Pp. 197. \$2.50.

The story of a great leader of the Cherokees written for young people.

Collectivism Challenges Christianity. By Verne Paul Kaub. Winona Lake, Indiana: Light and Life Press, 1946. Pp. 249. \$2.00.

Written to prove the thesis that Christianity and Collectivism are antagonistic.

A Social Interpretation of South Carolina. By G. Croft Williams. Columbia, South Carolina: University of South Carolina Press, 1946. Pp. ix, 238. \$3.00.

An objective and authoritative analysis of the common life of the state.

Introduction to New Zealand. Produced by the Historical Branch of the Department of Internal Affairs. Wellington, New Zealand: Whitcombe and Tombs, 1945. Pp. 271. Illustrated.

A book about New Zealand distributed for the New Zealand Legation, Washington, D. C.

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